A COMPARISON OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING OF ENGLISH FOR

ACADEMIC PURPOSES IN TRADITIONAL AND COMMUNICATIVE PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING OF ENGLISH FOR
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In this thesis a comparison was made of two second language learning
programs designed to meet the special needs of foreign students studying
English for Academic Purposes (E.A.P.). One of the programs was tradi-
tional; the other a communicative, experimental approach. The traditional
program was grammar based and focused on discrete errors and sentence-
level production. It incorporated a situationalist methodology in a
teacher-centered classroom. Language skills were not integrated systema-
tically. The communicative program was content based and focused on glo-
bal errors and discourse organization. It incorporated a problem-solving
methodology in a student-centered classroom. Grammar was not specifical-
ly taught and language skills were integrated systematically. Structured
writing samples were gathered during the third, sixth and ninth weeks of
a ten week course. Performance scores were generated based on a five-
category evaluation procedure, (The English Ability Profile), which as-
sessed communicability and organization, language use, mechanics, vocabu-
lary and content. The groups consisted of the high and low intermediate
levels from each program. Independent raters scored all proto-
cols and high interrater reliabilities were obtained. The results indi-
cated superior performance of subjects in the communicative program.
The low ability group showed significant gains, contrary to previous
researchers expectations. More precisely, analyses indicated that the
communicative group made particularly significant gains in mechanics and

language use, both grammar components, and communicability and organi-
zation, which reflects rhetorical control. The traditional group did
not score better on grammar factors despite its explicit treatment.
Furthermore, tests of reading and listening comprehension indicated
superior achievement for the communicative program. Given the strong
evidence which supported the overall approach of the communicative
program, an analysis of the theoretical premises and a description of
the integral components of the instructional system have been included
for the purposes of replication and program design.

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CHAPTER ONE

RATIONALE

In recent years, research in applied linguistics has challenged the premises of the traditional language syllabus and curriculum (Hatch, 1978; Hymes, 1970; Widdowson, 1972; Wilkins, 1974, 1976). The rationale for this reexamination stems in part from the striking contrast between the learners' ability to use grammatical structures in class and their inability to use that knowledge in real communication outside the classroom (Macnamera, 1973; Vogel, Note 1). This thesis describes an in-depth empirical comparison of the effectiveness of a traditional vs. a communicative approach to language instruction. The subjects were students in an English-for Academic Purposes (EAP) program, the goal of which is to enable learners to function within a second language academic environment.

The model which underlies the traditional curriculum stresses the associative, repetitive and habit-forming aspects of language learning—insights from the work in behaviorist psychology. The resulting syllabus is concerned with language at the sentence level and aimed at error-free production of structures achieved through pattern practice drills and pre-fabricated routines. In this instructional model the teacher controls and dominates the classroom (Holmes, 1978; Long, 1975). The learner's input consists mainly of responses to teacher-initiated questions or situational dialogues. These teaching strategies lack real-world authenticity. In the first case, the teacher is not really asking for information but is rather looking for the predetermined response

(White, Note 2). In the second, the student is not really initiating his/ her own original conversation.

In order to build a theoretical foundation from which to critically evaluate and alter the situational, grammar-based approach, second language (L_2) researchers turned first to the work on first language (L_1) acquisition (Brown, 1973). These acquisition studies suggested that the L_2 process is very similar to the L_1 process (see Krashen, 1976 for review). One central L_1 hypothesis is that children formulate rules about language and test these rules against what they hear; revising the system as they go (Brown, 1973). Researchers have postulated the existence of a similar L_2 process through the growth of an interlanguage or a transitional approximative system (Nemser, 1971). The learner's interlanguage begins as a necessarily simplified system and develops as the L_2 speaker moves closer to native-like production (Richards, 1974 & Selinker, 1972).

A second hypothesis which proved central to the position of more recent L_2 research, is that second language develops as a result of communicative interaction out of which grammatical structures are learned, rather than the reverse (Hatch; 1978). Subsumed in this hypothesis is the notion that error production is a natural part of language learning and that it marks a systematic progression in the development of a learner's interlanguage or transitional competence (Nemser, 1971). The cumulative effect of these conclusions from language acquisition research has been a retreat from the pedagogic reliance on a syllabus

based on pre-determined grammar categories and pattern practise exercises.

Language Instruction

Syllabus design in second language instruction has now gradually turned towards communicative competence (Hymes, 1970). This approach is rooted in the social function of language in use. Hymes maintains that the communicative nature of language is as basic to our understanding of the language process as are abstract grammatical systems such as Bloomfield's structural grammar or Chomsky's transformational grammar. In order to illustrate the arbitrary nature of these systems, he points out that the same sentence may be given a single grammatical interpretation yet serve different communicative functions while different sentences may serve the same function. "He decided on the floor" represents a form of semantic ambiguity, while the statements "The garbage needs to be taken out" or "Take out the garbage" could serve the same communicative function.

The work of Hymes and his students has formed the theoretical basis for the development of the notional-functional approach to second language teaching which emphasizes communication. The rationale for the notional-functional approach is intuitively sensible. It features the classroom presentation of authentic language in life-like situations.

The notional-functional approach does not, however, constitute a framework of sufficient breadth to meet the demands of EAP program design. Strictly applied, it translates methodologically as the develop-

ment of oral skills in every-day social situations. Many second langu-
age learners, particularly those in this study, have goals beyond these
social needs. The notional-functional approach represents, in many
respects, an alternative model for grammar sequencing. In order to
meet the communicative needs of learners, programs must be designed ac-
cording to broader principles that reflect real-world language demands in
a number of areas; type and presentation of language, methodology and
pedagogy.

Communicative Program Design

There are many factors which play a part in the design of ESL in-
struction. These have been extensively examined on both theoretical and
experimental grounds. From this and other work a body of theoretical
principles for program design emerges. This study investigates a com-
municative program founded on these principles, which include: use of
language to carry out meaningful tasks or to close information gaps,
i.e., a problem-solving approach; a student-centered classroom which pro-
motes interaction (Parks & Thibaudeau, 1981); a focus on higher level
discourse units, i.e., grammatically ungraded material (Parks & Thibau-
deau, 1981); and language input which is slightly beyond the learner's
interlanguage stage, i.e., challenging material (Krashen, 1981). Each
is discussed in greater detail below.

Problem-solving approach. An information sharing and problem-sol-
ving approach in L_2 instruction provides an opportunity for approximating
real world communication. This approach entails an understanding of the

skills and strategies a learner employs to carry out learning tasks. These include a range of cognitive strategies, such as previewing, skimming, scanning, reading for a purpose, note-taking, planning and revising (Alexander, 1980; Flower, 1979). It also embraces the comprehension of rhetorical and discourse organization (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Kaplan, 1972).

Student-centered classrooms. The student-centered classroom increases the communication channels available to the learner. This structure accomplishes two purposes. With regard to the affective domain, it alleviates the anxiety of center-stage performance for the learner when called upon to respond to questions, to provide commentary or to initiate communication. From an acquisition perspective, it provides a format which conforms to the requirements for real-world communication (Long, 1975; Taylor, Note 3). The learner is an active participant, at turns following and directing the course of conversation.

Discourse organization. The difficulties that L_2 learners face in developing language skills stem in part from the arbitrary nature of rhetorical organization (Alexander, 1980; Kaplan, 1972). Complex discourse units have to be understood and manipulated and in turn, rhetorical conventions have to made use of to meet the individual's purpose.

The L_2 learner is at a disadvantage, functioning within the framework of a rhetorical (logic and organization) system s/he does not control. Studies made of L_2 writing indicate that rhetorical development

affects the global assessment of the learner's work (Jacobs, 1981; Kaplan, 1972). Rhetorical conventions correctly used account for the coherent flow and integrity of the writing. It has been asserted that L_2 learners profit from an exposure to challenging and grammatically ungraded discourse units (Parks & Thibaudeau, 1981). As well, it is argued that correction of errors affecting global organization is more effective that correcting local grammar errors in improving the comprehensibility of sentences (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). This hypothesis has been extended to include higher level discourse units (Parks & Thibaudeau, 1981).

Input. The target language with which a learner is presented should be slightly beyond the learner's current level of competence (Krashen, 1978). For this language to become "intake", i.e. meaningful and/or useful to the learner, the focus must be on the communication of the message, not on the form. Krashen submits that neither free conversation nor mechanical drills satisfy the requirements for input. Furthermore, he feels that the formal language learning environment of the classroom may prove the most effective provider of comprehensible input because language content and its structure can be controlled to satisfy requirements for intake. Support for this view can be found in the studies of language acquisition in immersion programs (D'Anglejan, 1978; Swain, 1978). D'Anglejan submits that the learner "must receive input of the second language...and this input must be embedded in a context of social interaction."

Research Question

Many claims for the efficacy of the communicative approach have been made (Long, 1975; Stern, 1981). However, as Corder (1980) recently noted, little evaluation has been conducted. This thesis therefore addressed the problem of investigating the effects of a communicative approach to L_2 learning and compared these to those of the traditional approach.

Comparative studies of teaching methods are fraught with difficulty. Measures have to be taken to ensure a high degree of generalizability as well as reasonable attention paid to internal validity. To satisfy the requirements for external validity, assessment was made of the ongoing learning process in real instructional settings. However, the quasi-experimental design also called for the delineation of precise program variables and criteria. These variables were identified and used to objectively evaluate the relative strengths and weaknesses of both approaches without experimental bias.

An important step in conducting a bias free comparison of teaching methods is the development and implementation of a comprehensive and objective dependent measure. To this end, it was found that prior studies have demonstrated that overall language ability of foreign students intending to follow a program of academic studies in English can be measured by means of written work (Brodkey & Young, 1981; Kaczmarek, 1980). The subject of investigation in this thesis therefore was limited to the production of writing in the L_2 classroom. The choice of writing

as a dependent measure is rooted in a number of considerations, theoretical as well as logistical. The learners who were the subjects of this study were enrolled in language courses (E.A.P.) to prepare them for university study at the graduate or undergraduate levels. The bulk of the work they would undertake would involve understanding university-level lectures, academic reading and expository writing. In the university setting the learner is required to communicate almost solely in writing. Thus, the evaluation of his/her overall academic performance depends greatly on the ability to competently carry out written tasks. Both the traditional and communicative programs from which subjects were drawn include writing tasks in their curriculum. However, the conceptualization and approach to writing differs in accordance with their respective theoretical and pedagogical principles. Therefore, it was expected that differences between groups would be detected by assessments based on the evaluation of writing samples.

Written discourse also presents certain logistical advantages as a dependent measure. It is a permanent record, accessible for evaluation. It can be gathered from subjects over the course of the program's duration reflecting the cumulative effects of the method of instructions. Also, the written task can be integrated easily into regular course work, thus controlling for the Hawthorne effect.

Jacobs, Hartfiel, Hughey and Wormuth (1977, 1979) have developed an assessment of the total communicativeness of the writing sample. The English Ability Profile features a five linguistic category rating scale

composed of: communicability and organization, language use, content, vocabulary and mechanics. As such, it takes into account both global discourse organizational ability and control over discrete point grammar. The use of scales of this type has been supported in other L_2 research (Mullen, 1980). It was expected that a measure of this kind could distinguish the ways in which writing skills developed in each of the two programs.

Program Differences in Writing Skill Instruction

The difference between a grammar-based and a communication-based syllabus is readily apparent in an analysis of how each deals with the development of writing skills. The traditional program treats the teaching of writing largely as the explicit teaching of grammar. The learner is given explanation of discrete grammar points and completes assigned exercises. Each set of exercises deals with one grammar point. The introduction of each point follows the sequence of grading found in any structural approach. This approach does not emphasize the learner's development of a repertoire of macro-level skills and strategies for producing longer texts. It focuses on discrete point accuracy. Issues of organization and content are confined mainly to the one paragraph-topic sentence, body and conclusion- format. This format is explained through models and controlled exercises. Assigned writing tasks are corrected primarily for discrete point grammatical errors with lesser account paid to problems in organization. The student receives feedback on local errors of discrete point grammar.

The communicative program concentrates on the learner's development of discourse organization. In-class work aims at developing the requisite skills and strategies for understanding the structure of a wider variety of content and length of written discourse than is attempted in the traditional program. The activities are constructed to simulate real-world communicative imperatives. An example of this kind is an activity known as information transfer in which a learner works with others to gather information from a number of sources to complete a graph or chart and write up the results. Assigned essays are also situated within a thematic context related usually to other in-class work. Correction feedback emphasizes primarily those errors which interfere with the communication of meaning, although local errors are called to the learner's attention, particularly if these be systematic errors. This program does not teach a pre-established grammar program. Grammar explanations are given in response to learner's needs. Grammar drills and exercises do not form part of the in-class work.

Hypotheses

The main issue this thesis addressed was the comparative language development of learners in two different programs as expressed in writing ability. Given the two approaches, would the communicative program be as effective as the traditional program at facilitating language acquisition? As has been reported here, research indicates that a communicative program of the type described should enable the learners to make greater strides in developing the language skills required for undertaking university level work than would be

possible with the traditional program. It was, therefore, hypothesized

that subjects in the communicative program would demonstrate an overall

superior performance on the writing tasks. More specifically, it was

expected that differences between the groups would appear most strongly

in the communicability and organization category. Finally, despite the

attention to discrete errors given in the traditional program, it was

expected that the communicative groups would perform no better than the

traditional group on scores for the grammar categories, language use,

and mechanics.

Program Design

The second intent of this thesis was to provide prescriptive recom-

mendations for the development of a communicative syllabus. Given that

the experimental approach proved an effective means of language instruc-

tion, specific explanation of principal guidelines for and operational

functioning of a program of this nature would be proposed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Our understanding of second language acquisition has changed great-
ly during the last decade. The first goal of this review is to examine
the development of language instruction literature from the "traditional"
approaches to more contemporary techniques. It is interesting to note
that many of the approaches long since rejected in some quarters are
still being systematically applied in others. There exists as yet no
consensus on how a second language is best taught, or more accurately,
best learned. Thus, one finds that various programs are "fixated" in
certain periods or approaches, while others have embraced the changes
suggested by basic research. In most cases, a theoretical position
spawned a practical solution, so that the methodology of the instruc-
tional techniques closely mimicked the fundamental premises of the basic
research.

Post-war instruction quickly adopted the behaviorist concept of
language acquisition. The traditional syllabus, a product of behaviorism
expressed in the audio-lingual, oral or situational approaches, is based
on a supposition that the learner can improve primarily through the re-
petition of routines and patterns in practice (Carroll, 1965; Gagne,
1965; Jackabovitz, 1970). It is concerned with accuracy of grammatical
form at the sentence level. The tolerance of discrete point grammatical
error is low. The traditional syllabus is synthetic (Wilkins, 1976);
i.e., prior to instruction the language is broken down into its' various

components: grammar structure, lists of lexical terms, etc.. The learner's task is to learn the individual parts so as to eventually reconstruct the whole. In this context, it is not uncommon for the learner to be characterized as knowing or not knowing the present continuous tense. Each new theory has challenged the behaviorist position. These various approaches are discussed below.

Pattern Practice

Recent findings in neurophysiology suggest that the practices promoted in the routine/pattern practice methods are counter-productive to the central processes of language acquisition (Lamendella, 1979). At best, these drills can require the activation of the learner's "monitor" to recall rules in conversational contexts; only, however, by an indirect route. It is postulated that mechanical drills are carried out at a speech-copying level (Lamendella, 1977; 1979) which is functionally dissociated from higher level language processing systems. These speech-copying circuits are ones which allow us to repeat speech verbatim. This dissociation may account for the detach-ment students evince when carrying out rote exercises. If one can define "meaningful" in the manner Lamendella hypothesizes, i.e. direct access to grammatical knowledge without the need for conscious direction, then a traditional approach which incorporates this type of activity is not providing the best opportunities for language acquisition. It is this fundamental difference in the treatment of grammar which separates earlier from more recent syllabuses.

The Importance of Grammar

The traditional program investigated in this experiment was based
on a structural grammar syllabus. This syllabus assumes that the learner
improves by building knowledge in a step-by-step process, each structure
must be perfectly produced before learning the next. L_2 acquisition was
long considered a question of grammatical knowledge. Indeed, grammar
description and presentation constitute the bulk of material found in
most L_2 student texts. Formulas for their description and pedagogical
presentation comprise an important part of methodology courses. However,
the justification for a grammar approach to syllabus design is not
supported in studies of L_2 acquisition.

Second language acquisition. L_2 acquisition research in the early
70's drew heavily of L_1 (first language) research. Drawing on the
methdology and investigation areas of Brown and Bellugi (1968) and
de Villiers and de Villiers (1973), L_2 researchers first examined the
acquisition of morphemes in second language. The research question in
these studies asked whether the L_2 acquisition sequence paralleled that of
L_1 (Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974); Dulay & Burt, 1974; Larsan-Freeman,
1975; Rosansky, Note 4). The results indicated that the L_2 acquisition
sequence did not generally conform to the L_1 pattern. There were certain
variances in the results of this research (Burt & Dulay, 1973; Larsan-
Freeman, 1975). Some of the anomolies identified were tentatively attributed
to the testing methodology used to elicit the data (Krashen, 1977), or to
differences between child/adult learners (Dulay & Burt, 1974). When

these factors were adjusted, many of these differences were also
eliminated.

Closer scrutiny of the methodology and concept of morpheme acqui-
sition as a theoretical approach to L_2 acquisition has revealed certain
problems bearing on the issue of grammar and its centrality to syllabus
design. These were made evident by examination of methods of scoring,
the methods of eliciting production and the categorization of grammati-
cal form produced in many studies. It was pointed out that when mastery
of a grammatical form is credited only when a 90% score has been at-
tained, information about what might be occurring at levels below this
score is masked (Hatch, 1978). When the elicitation of the response
focuses on form alone it ignores the question of context. The learner
may be using the form in inappropriate contexts. The question of range
is also unexamined. If a learner is said to have acquired the copula
(the verb "to be") and the only form which appears is 'is' as in 'its,
that's, this is', when no example of 'was, were, am, are' were called
for, can it be said that the copula has been acquired? (Hatch, 1978).
It also behooves one to question the criteria for considering some
morphemes as more appropriate than others for L_2 acquisition. R.H.
Andersen's (1977) research exemplifies the problem by asking if de-
finite and indefinite articles should be considered separate categories
for investigating L_2 acquisition or only one (Hatch, 1978). A part of
the interest in issues raised by morpheme acquisition studies is the
question of whether grammar-based L_2 teaching is central to any

understanding of learning a second language. These and other studies question this presumption.

Monitor model. The theoretical work of Steven Krashen (1977a, b) challenges the premise that grammar practice is central to second language learning. Krashen's monitor model proposes that there are two systems: acquired and learned. According to the monitor model, it is hypothesized that learning is available to the adult performer in second language production only as a monitor; that is, only to alter the output of the acquired system (Krashen, 1977a).

learning (the Monitor)

acquisition _____ output

(A creative construction
      process)
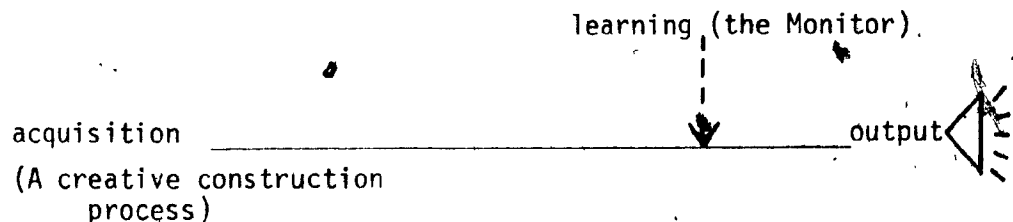
The Monitor Model for Adult Second Language Performance

The monitor, Krashen claims, does not feed into the acquisition process; it acts as a type of filter. Furthermore, the learned system acts as a monitor only when time and conditions permit (Krashen, 1976), e.g., when taking a classroom-type test. It is, then, a selective filter of varying efficacy. In essence, the introduction of the monitor model extended the discussion of language acquisition beyond the presumption of discrete point grammar as central to any discussion of L_2 acquisition to the realization that a more complex organization was at work.

Interlanguage

The grammar-based syllabus supposed that language acquisition is the cumulative gain of individual bits of information. In contrast, a dynamic schema of growth, marked at times by spurts and at others by regression or "backsliding" has been postulated. This system is referred to as the learner's interlanguage (Selinker, 1972).

Interlanguage is defined as an open system resulting from regular and systematic application of rules, strategies and hypotheses (Richards, 1978). Apart from cases of fossilization, the system is never static. Stable growth influenced by a small number of variables is hypothesized. These variables include: the input from the learner's native language, input from the way in which the learner is taught the language, input from the repertoire of communication strategies and overgeneralization of target language rules (Selinker, 1972).

The learner has at her/his command a number of communication strategies to meet the demands of the learning environment (Tarone, 1981). Research indicates that there are a number of characteristic ways in which a learner will attempt to convey a message to another person who s/he has reason to believe does not share her/his meaning structure. These strategies include paraphrase, borrowing from the native language, an appeal for assistance, mime, avoidance of the topic or discontinuation of the message (Tarone, 1981). The learning environment has only to foster the opportunity to use these strategies and further interlanguage growth. In practical terms this means that small

errors should not be corrected when the interruption would interfere with meaningful communication of ideas.

Error analysis. It has been contended that only a mere five percent of those adults who learn a second language achieve native-like competence (Selinker, 1972). The rest of us learn as best we can. Error analysis marks a re-evaluation in approach from error as behavior which could be altered feature by feature, to error as behavior which should be investigated for clues to the understanding of underlying psychololinguistic structures and processes in L_2 performance (Selinker, 1972). It was suggested that the learner hypothesized from rules and strategies that characterize interlanguage when faced with linguistic input. The learner's interlanguage system grows as a result of inter-action from which grammatical form is acquired rather than the reverse (Hatch, 1978, a, b). The type of interaction encouraged by the traditional vs. the communicative approaches provides another instance of comparison.

Interaction

The work of Hatch (1978) regarding interaction contends that structures evolve out of attempts to carry on conversations rather than the reverse. This notion has been advanced previously in the work of Newmark (1966.) who pointed out that:

> if each phonological and syntactic rule, each complex of lexical features, each semantic value and stylistic nuance, in short if each item which the linguist's analysis leads

> him to identify had to be acquired one at a time, proceeding
> from simplest to most complex, then each had to be connected
> to specific stimuli, or stimulus sets, the child learner
> would be old before he could say a single appropriate thing
> and the adult would be dead. (p. 38)

The linguistic environment of L_2 learners is often compared with the linguistic environment in which children acquire their first language (Brown, 1968). The salient characteristics of a child's language environment that can be transposed to an L_2 learning environment are: simplified input, with an immediate referent, which is marked by repetition, reduced rate of speech and clear articulation (Gaies, 1977). Input refers to the language which is available to the learner from the environment (Corder, 1967). It is through the process of conversation that engages the learner that this language is "picked up". With practice the learner achieves competence - progressing from comprehension to topic nomination to elaboration. Under these conditions language acquisition advances rapidly. The learner has at his/her disposal a wealth of information about the world and a store of communication strategies acquired in his/her native tongue. This knowledge can only be transferred in interaction, and interaction can easily be promoted in a formal classroom environment (Krashen, 1978).

Feedback / error correction. Communicative interaction provides a learner with important feedback for correction. There are certain requirements for effective feedback. Research suggests that the learner

attends to correction of form when the source of the error is clearly communicated in a manner which is non-threatening (Cardele & Cordo, 1981). It is critical that the learner not become frustrated by oft repeated corrections.

There is a need for selection as to the type of error one chooses to focus on when providing feedback to the learner. A distinction can be made between two basic categories of error. The first is "global" error: mistakes which violate rules involving the overall structure of a sentence, the relations among constituent clauses, or in a simple sentence, the relations among major constituents. The second, "local" errors, refers to discrete grammar points such as subject-verb agreement or improper verb tense formation (Burt & Kiparsky, 1974). Burt and Kiparsky hypothesize that the correction of global errors is more helpful than correction of local errors as global errors interfere most with the transmission of a message. This hypothesis referred basically to errors at the sentence level only. Parks and Thibaudeau (1981) have extended this notion of global errors to include rhetorical organization. An analysis of error type at this level helps to establish guidelines for providing selective feedback to the learner.

Program Design

Traditional program: syllabus and methodology. Developing a program of instruction is a matter of making choices. When one examines the composition of a language syllabus, one can delineate the premises on which such choices are made. As has been discussed, the traditional

language program is based on an approach rooted in behavioral psychology and the structural linguistics of Bloomfield (1933), Lado and Fries (1958). There are other premises which characterize this program. The traditional program focuses on the learning of discrete structures in a setting which is quite formal. It is commonly observed that this setting rarely corresponds to the real communicative settings outside the classroom (D'Anglejan,1978). Time available in the traditional program is usually divided amongst a small number of activities. A reading is introduced which is followed by comprehension and grammar, questions. In many cases the reading is chosen because of the grammatical item featured therein. Such readings are generally characterized by the prevalence of a particular grammatical item throughout. The emphasis in these exercises is the detection and eradication of learner error. In some cases a comprehension exercise is introduced as part of the reading "unit". Again, the focus of this type of activity is typically sentence level production of a grammatical structure. The content is provided. The learner is asked to manipulate this content in a pre-ordained manner.

The artificiality of these reading and comprehension tasks is also apparent in the conversational activities of the classroom. The student and teacher only rarely have the opportunity to engage in meaningful dialogue. The teacher is usually intent on correction of the student's production, not on clarifying meaning (D'Anglejan, 1978; MacNamera, 1973). The exchanges which occur in these contexts are

unlike anything that one finds in everyday conversation. The following example illustrates this phenomenon (Holmes, 1977):

A: Where do you live, Tony?

B: Wellington.

C: Good boy. Who else can tell me where they live?

or as in Hatch and Long (1980):

imagine the effect achieved by speaker A in informal conversation with a fellow student, B, whom she meets in the school cafeteria:

A: What did you do last night?

B: I went to a movie.

C: Very good. (p. 17)

Attempts have been made in the traditional program under study to introduce reality by incorporating situational dialogues or role play and free conversation into the classroom. The problem with situational role plays is that they fall short of offering genuine interaction, as Taylor (Note 3) has indicated.

I observed a class in which students were to act out a roleplay concerned with looking for an apartment. The instructor presented the necessary vocabulary, offered some idioms and useful expressions, and asked for volunteers. Two students were to ask questions of the landlord and then decide if they wanted to rent the apartment. The volunteers pretended to enter the living room, looked

around for no more than a few seconds, asked about the

rent and agreed to take the apartment on the spot. The

teacher then prompted them to ask about utilities, the

lease, the number of bedrooms, the availability of parking

and all of the other kinds of questions which we must

assume they would have asked without prompting <u>had it</u>

<u>been a real situation</u>. p. 14

(my underlining)

The introduction of free conversation can be artificial if the learner

is not sufficiently motivated or informed about the topic of conversa-

tion. Asking someone "What do you think about X?" offers little in the

way of context for this exercise to provide meaningful interaction.

<u>Writing tasks</u>. The focus on form in the production of speech and

the stress on lexical and syntactic information in reading, patterns

and pre-fabricated routines are carried through in the production of

writing as well. Writing in the traditional syllabus focuses on cor-

rection of discrete point grammar and often takes the form of adherence

to a prefabricated model. In this kind of program the highest level of

discourse that is treated instructionally is the paragraph. The para-

graph is treated in one of two ways; topic sentence followed by support-

ing points or supporting ideas summerized by topic sentence. Very

little is offered the learner in the way of variety. The pace is

slowed by the emphasis on form - an emphasis which seems misplaced.

Krashen (1978) points out that even when given sufficient time, the

second language writer's use of correct grammatical form does not seem
to improve. As well, the learner has few opportunities for information
sharing, as the interaction is almost completely teacher-student in a
formalized situation. Finally, the writing task is not closely related
to the reading or oral activites but is often treated separately.
There are few opportunities for learners to explore a range of dis-
course styles or, more importantly, to develop their own.

Communicative program: syllabus and methodology. The communicative
program in this study has a content-based core curriculum. Materials
are grammatically unstructured, e.g. the syllabus is analytic (Wilkins,
1976). The language is presented whole. This program may be distin-
guished from the traditional in a number of ways: 1) its choice of con-
tent and activities, 2) its focus on learning and communicative stra-
tegies, 3) its treatment of errors and 4) its fostering of classroom
interaction.

The activities of this program typically consist of information
gathering from one or more sources in order to complete a task. This
involves communicating and sharing information as well as receiving it
from others. The materials are a mixture of graded and authentic ma-
terials, thematically related and chosen for their interest and chal-
lenge to the reader. The use of authentic materials is important as
it insures an exposure to language which is ungraded lexically and
syntactically. The learner can, using context and their knowledge of
the world, coupled with other non-verbal cues, understand enough of

the information to complete the task with the help of peers (Taylor, Note 3).Without the input from other learners, the task is impossible to complete. Interaction of learners with each other is an important feature of this program.

— Interaction. The communicative approach encourages learners to co-operate and share information, thereby arriving at a common agreement or solution to the task at hand. The emphasis is not so much on getting the answer right as reaching agreement as a group. Group work entails role changes for both teacher and learner. The teacher's role is no longer that of judge and final arbiter of correctness (Parks & Thibaudeau, 1981), but that of facilitator. This implies that the communication is not controlled by the teacher. "It is important that we create an environment in which students want to communicate and that we (teachers) should not try to control that communication." p. 16. (Taylor, Note 3).

Errors. When students interact with each other and the focus is on fluency, errors are treated in a particular way. Errors are considered a natural part of language learning. They are important because, among other things, they provide information about the state of the learner's interlanguage (Richards, 1974; Selinker, 1972). The learners' errors provide the base for a lot of the grammar input in a communicative classroom. When an error arises, particularly if it interferes with communication, if it is a regular error, or if a number of people are making the same error, then explanations which will help

the learner correct the error may be made. The introduction of a grammatical form is not solely contingent on error. It is also a function of the rhetorical demands of the task. If the correct use of a rhetorical device demands the use of a form the learner does not know, then this is information the learner needs.

The learner can greatly benefit from an understanding of the skills and strategies that help them discern the rhetorical structure of what they hear and read and help them organize their writing. These receptive and productive skills are inter-related. Research indicates that the L_2 learner greatly benefits from a large amount of input before s/he can produce (Postovsky, 1974). Certainly one can not imagine a learner producing written communication without an equivalent reading comprehension. The communicative approach helps learners to develop their language ability by presentation and practice of the skills and strategies that help them communicate effectively. In order to understand the nature of these skills, we must understand the problems of rhetorical structure for the L_2 learner.

Rhetorical structure. Rhetorical structure is culture bound (Kaplan, 1974). Even though a second language learner may be forming syntactically correct structures, the overall effect may sound strange to a native speaker because of a lack of rhetorical organization. English rhetorical structure is linear, relying extensively on subordination to propel it forward; such is not the case in many other languages. Semitic languages, for instance, strive to obtain elaborate

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effects of parallelism. Oriental writing appears circular due to an approach by indirection. Romance and Slavic writing, at least in the minds of native English speakers, contains too many digressions irrelevant to the point. Kaplan (1974) graphically depicts these differences in the following manner:

| English | Oriental | ·Romance | Slavic |
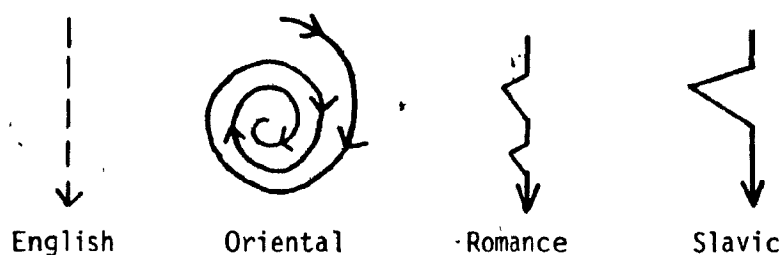
Generally speaking, the greater the gap between the learner's culture and that of the language to be learned, the greater the difficulty in assimilating (English) discourse patterns (Kaplan, 1974). These discourse patterns are arbitrary and have to be explained to the learner. Because they govern the structure of a communication, their understanding is important to the second language learner.

In English, rhetorical structure requires an understanding of coherence (the ordering of information in a particular way) and cohesion (the use of certain rhetorical devices which maintain the flow of information) (Widdowson, 1978). Understanding these devices and the overall organization of a text can be facilitated both through the choice of appropriate materials which provide models of such organization and by teaching skills necessary for their comprehension. The type of approach used in this syllabus generally involves showing the

learner skills for comprehension and asking questions which call attention to the passage's rhetorical organization as well as to its information content. These skills include scanning for a general overview of topic, skimming for special information on questions, re-reading to clarify questions or overall structure, and revising notes (Alexander, 1980). This approach to reading provides a learner with the tools and a foundation for understanding written material.

Writing task. Writing is a productive task. Producing acceptable writing demands more of the learner than either reading comprehension (a receptive process) or oral communication (an active one). There is, in the words of Flower and Hayes (1980), "a difference between spoken utterance and a text in terms of our expectation that a text will be fully contextualized." p.39 . In speech the demands for co-herence and cohesion are not as great, as we depend on the immediate situation, shared context and many forms of non-verbal cues to com-municate meaning (Flower & Hayes, 1980). In writing the constraints are much tighter.

The pre-dominant model of writing strategies has for a long time been a step-by-step process of first thinking, then planning, writing and finally revising for small errors. Recent research in cognitive processes in writing indicate that this model separates the thinking and writing task in a way that does not reflect what the writer does during composition. Flower and Hayes propose rather that "the tasks of planning and producing and revising language all interact throughout

composing...they occur in interactive, recursive patterns, not stages."
(Flower & Hayes, 1980, p. 41). A clear writing task is essential for
a second language learner to be successful in writing. The process of
generating writing in this approach recognizes the crucial factor of
idea building that must precede composition. Writing is generally pre-
ceded by reading, listening, discussion; all idea-sharing activities.
The intention is to create a wealth of language, a variety of viewpoints,
to engage the writer before the topic is presented. This process varies
in length according to the learners' language level. These activites
are followed through in the writing process. The initial writing may
be done in groups: ideas shared, organization possibilities explored.
The follow-up of the final work is important. In the correction of
completed work the teacher has the opportunity to comment on the
learner's success at getting her/his idea across. This is the occasion
to reinforce successes, to indicate what her/his problems were and sug-
gest the strategies for meeting those problems successfully in the
future. It is also the time to assess how ready the learner is for new
or more complex approaches. Research seems to indicate that the learner
benefits most from feedback which is both constructive in the affective
sense of praising the writer's success and in the sense of positively
pointing out strategies for overcoming problems (Cardelle & Cordo, 1981).
Certainly a composition returned with a red mark for each discrete error
discourages the writer from making further attempts (Taylor, Note 3). As
well, it fails to provide a wider framework for improvement.

The communicative program intends, therefore, to equip the learner
with the skills and strategies necessary for effective communication
and the opportunity to practice these within a formal setting. The
traditional program focuses on language form and the production of that
form in situations which often fail to satisfy a communicative purpose.
In view of the difference between the two approaches, and in light of
current language acquisition theory, we would expect that the learner
following a communicative program would be better equipped to compose
and execute a writing task of the type s/he could expect in a university
environment.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Design and Subjects

Two different second language syllabuses were examined in this study. The first was a communicative syllabus based on a problem-solving, content-based, approach incorporating higher-level discourse, organization and challenging language input. The second was a traditional approach; grammar-based, situational, concentrating mainly on sentence level production. Both programs were special purposes programs, offering English for Academic Purposes for mature language learners. The following chart lists the variables which differentiate the two programs:

Communicative	Traditional
analytic presentation	synthetic presentation
discourse organization	discrete point grammar
problem-solving approach	situationalist approach
hypothesis testing	behaviorist learning theory
discourse	sentence level production
high error tolerance	low error tolerance
global error focus	local error focus
learner-centered class	teacher-centered class

When learners apply to the programs, they are given a placement test and divided into three major categories: beginners, intermediate and advanced. These categories are then broken down to form levels of

each. Two classes were then chosen from each program's intermediate category: one designated "low" intermediate and the other "high" intermediate as determined by placement test score distributions. Placement evaluation was made according to similar criteria in both programs. Students in the communicative program were given an oral interview and a writing task. In the traditional program students are also given a discrete point grammar test. The results of the grammar tests were used to form initial groups. The writing task was then used to reassign groups so as to assure communicative homogeneity. These programs both met twenty-four hours a week, five days a week, for nine weeks. The subjects were from a variety of language backgrounds and were mature language learners. Student demographics appear in Appendix A.

The purpose of this study was to compare the development of language proficiency of subjects in each program and between high and low groups in those programs. Language development was measured by evaluation of three writing samples gathered from each subject over the course of the program. The design, therefore, was a two strategy (communicative vs traditional) by two proficiency (low vs high) by three test interval (three, six and nine weeks) mixed model with a repeated measure on the test variable (see Figure 1).

Materials

The subjects in both programs were evaluated by means of writing samples on assigned essay topics three times during the program at three week intervals, beginning at the end of the first three weeks. The

Figure 1

Experimental Design

Ability
Level

High

Low

3-week

6-week

Test
Position

9-week

n=10   n=10

n=10   n=10

Communicative   Traditional
Teaching Method
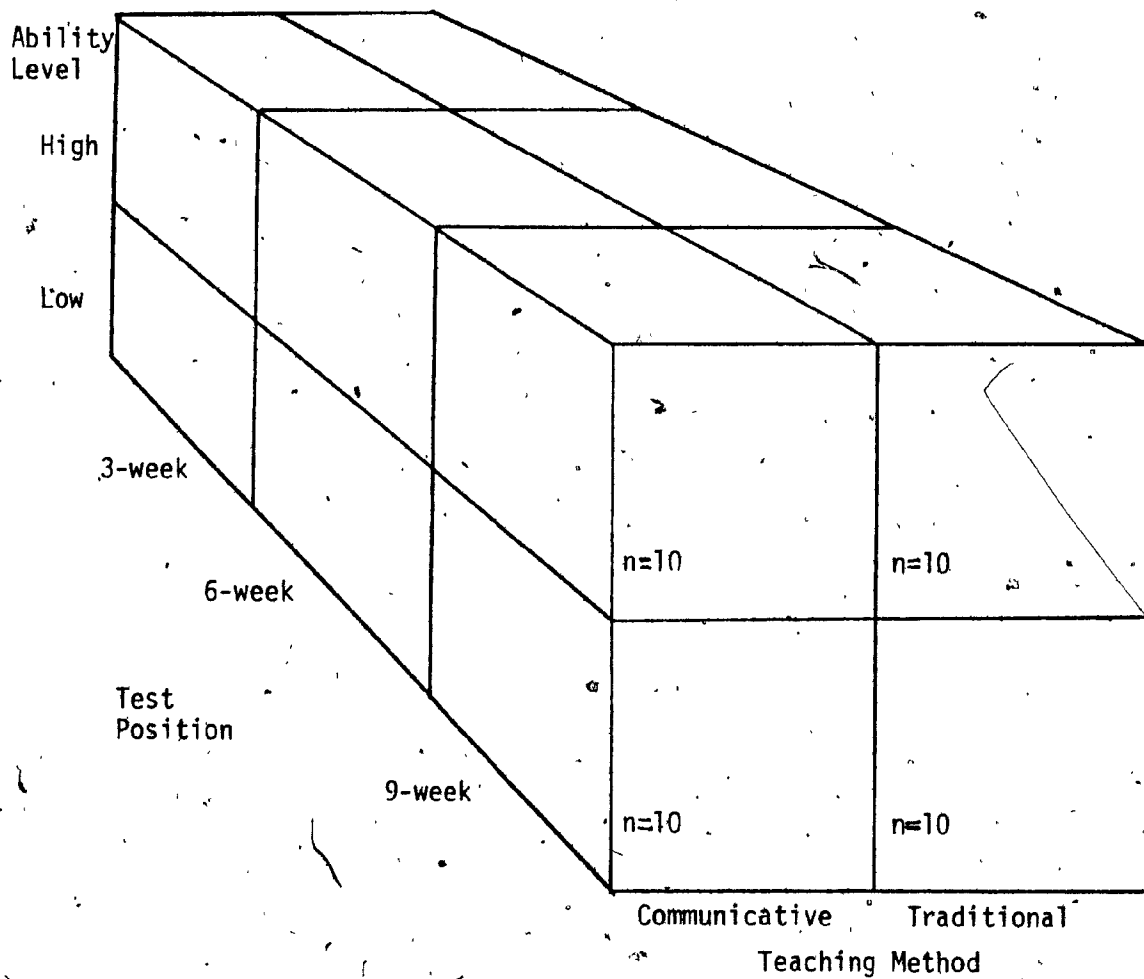
essay topics for each were chosen for their general interest. As well, each topic lent itself to a different rhetorical organization. Each writing period was preceded by presentation of prepared listenting materials. The listening comprehension script consisted of a text of varying length (typically four to six paragraphs) which contained information pertaining to the composition topic. The composition topics addressed three types of expository style: comparison and contrast, "Eskimo Life: Past and Present"; cause and effect, "The Problem of Stress"; and analysis and argumentation, "The Problem of Overpopulation". In addition to the writing sample, a test of listening and reading comprehension was administered at the nine week point. These two comprehension tests were thematically related but only tangentially related to the writing sample question. The listening test consisted of passages followed by true/false and short answer questions. The reading passage featured a six paragraph (thirty-five sentence) text and two question sections, one of which tested ability to discern a hierarchical organization and present this information from a traditional prose organization. They were examined in conjunction with the final writing sample.

The writing samples were graded using a five category writing evaluation scale. The English Ability Profile (Jacobs, Hartfiel, Hughey & Wormuth, 1977, 1979) provides a total assessment based on the grading of five components: communicability and organization, content, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. This evaluation tool was developed

for an English Second Language program for foreign students planning to pursue higher studies in North America. It was developed and refined over a two-year period (for samples of all testing and evaluation material, see Appendix B). The traditional and communicative programs differed precisely along the lines discussed in detail in the Literature Review, and each used standard materials apropos to its method.

Procedure

All language tasks were carried out during morning class time. The introduction of an experimental measure into the normal course of the teaching process required careful attention to insure the maintenance of a high degree of internal validity. Although the administration of the dependent measure involved a departure from normal classroom activity, its nature was not out of context and the learners had no way of knowing the "difference". It should also be noted that this was equally true for both programs. As well, steps were taken to insure that the dependent measure was introduced and carried out uniformly in each case. Teachers were instructed to present the task simply as another activity in the teaching program. The class was not to be specially prepared for the task. All were carried out by the regular class teacher in the usual classroom. The samples were returned promptly to the teachers and to the learners.

The first test was administered in the morning of the fourth day of the third week. The writing topic was introduced by the teacher who asked topic-nominating questions of the group, i.e. who are the Eskimos, where do they live, in a discussion to last no more than five minutes. Then a listening comprehension passage was read twice. This took twelve minutes. Students listened during the first reading and took notes during the

second. This was followed by five minutes of student-centered inter-
action when notes and other information was shared in groups of three.
Finally, the sample question was assigned. Subjects were instructed
to plan for approximately five minutes, write for forty and look over
their work in the last five. Subjects worked alone and were interrupted
only once to be told when five minutes remained. Papers were collected
at the end of that remaining time. The entire process lasted approxi-
mately one hour and twenty minutes.

Collection of the second sample followed the same procedure. It
was carried out in the morning of the fifth day in the sixth week. The
third writing sample as well as the listening and reading comprehension
components were collected during the ninth week. Administration of the
latter two were carried out in the morning of the second day. The lis-
tening comprehension component took one half hour to complete. The
listening passage was read a total of three times. Before the first
reading, subjects were asked to "just listen for the main idea". They
were given a few minutes to write this down after the reading. Then,
they were given the comprehension questions to answer from their notes.
After ten minutes, the passage was read the third and final time and
subjects were given ten minutes to complete their answers and notes.
The reading comprehension passage and questions were then given to the
subjects. They were instructed to first read the passage and then
answer questions, refering back to the text whenever necessary. They
were given an hour to read and complete the questions.

The third writing sample was collected on the following day, again in the morning class. The topic was introduced in a five minute discussion period directed by the teacher, again in the topic-nominating style of the previous samples. However, in this sample no listening passage was provided. The writing topic was given to the subjects and one hour was alloted for writing. As with the previous samples, subjects were instructed to first plan, then write and look over their work. They were informed when five minutes remained, at the end of which papers were collected.

Evaluation

The writing samples were evaluated independently by two markers who were unaware of the purpose of the study. Markers were instructed in the use of the English Ability Profile (Jacobs, Hartfiel, Hughey & Wormuth, 1977, 1979) in order to clarify any questions as to the interpretation of descriptors used for each sub-component. The scores were tallied independently (See Appendix C).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this section, the results of analyses of the collected data are reported. The first results concern the question of inter-rater relia- bility on the scoring of the writing samples. The results of analyses on both writing sample total scores and constituent category scores are then presented. Finally the outcome of analyses performed on the reading and listening components are given.

Inter-Rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability was measured on the writing sample evalua- tion scores. The correlation was performed on total scores for all sam- ples and for each of the constituent sub-components. The overall relia- bility index was .99 while the first test yielded .91, the second .90 and the third .94. Table 1 presents the inter-rater reliabilities for each of the constituent categories for each sample and the combined results for each sample. These results indicate that the interpretation of overall and constituent categories was sufficiently consistent for subse- quent analysis.

ANOVA

A two (teaching method) x two (proficiency level) x three (test position) repeated measures ANOVA was performed on the raw data for all writing samples. Means and standard deviation are provided in Table 2. The results of the ANOVA indicated the presence of a statistically significant two-way interaction between teaching method and ability level, $F_{(1,36)} =$

Table 1

Inter-rater Reliability for Writing Sample Scores

	Test 1 r=	Test 2 r=	Test 3 r=	Total Scores r=
Communicability and Organization	.85	.77	.93	.85
Language Use	.79	.87	.85	.80
Content	.86	.85	.88	.92
Vocabulary	.76	.55	.67	.83
Mechanics	.68	.62	.85	.72
Total Scores	.91	.90	.94	.99

Table 2

Raw Score Means and Standard Deviations
for Writing Samples

		Traditional High Ability	Communicative High Ability	Traditional Low Ability	Communicative Low Ability
Test 1	$\overline{X}$	68.05	74.35	61,50	80.80
	SD	7.77	9.64	14.23	7.29
Test 2	$\overline{X}$	73.05	80.30	61.45	80.15
	SD	9.71	7.60	9.00	7.23
Test 3	$\overline{X}$	74.20	82.25	64.25	84.70
	SD	9.96	4.11	12.21	4.86

5.85, p.<02. A simple effects analysis of this interaction revealed that the performance of the low proficiency group in the traditional teaching method was statistically significantly lower than that of the experimental teaching method while the difference between the two high ability groups was not (p>.05). The graphic representation of this interaction can be found in Figure 2. There was, as well, a statistically significant two-way interaction between proficiency level (high and low) and test position F (2,72) 3.31, p<.04. Both groups performed equally well during Test 1. However, the major increase of the high intermediate group did not show marked improvement until the period between the second and final tests (all p<.05). The interaction is depicted graphically in Figure 3.

Multivariate Analyses

Given the presence of statistically significant differences between the performances of subjects following different methods of instruction on the dependent measure, further analyses were possible. The evaluation tool examined the writing samples in terms of five discernible linguistic categories. This yielded information which might usefully reflect on the development of particular aspects of language ability in different programs.

Two multivariate analyses were undertaken to examine the differences in the contribution of each category to the total scores over time in each of the two programs. It was expected that certain categories, i.e.

Figure 2

Comparison between Communicative and Traditional
Programs by Assessed Proficiency

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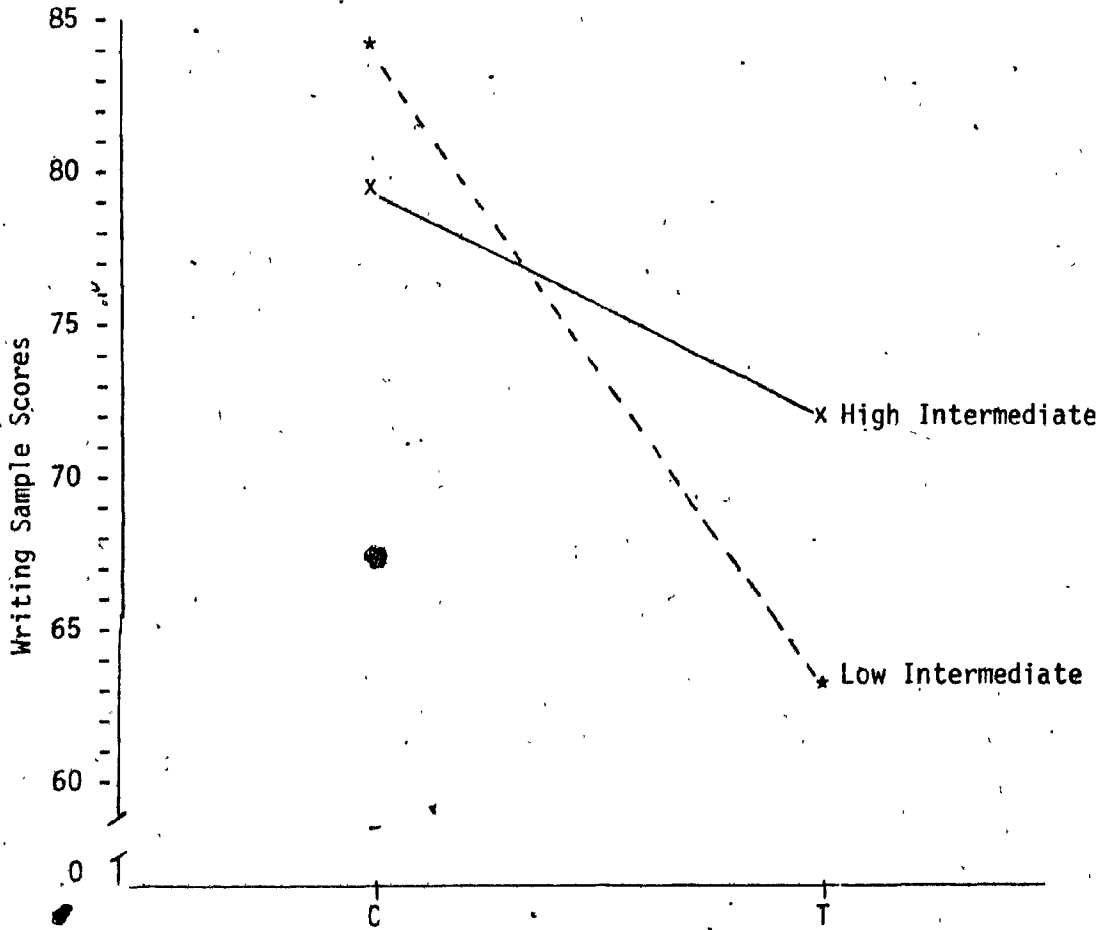
Figure 3

Comparison of proficiency levels over tests
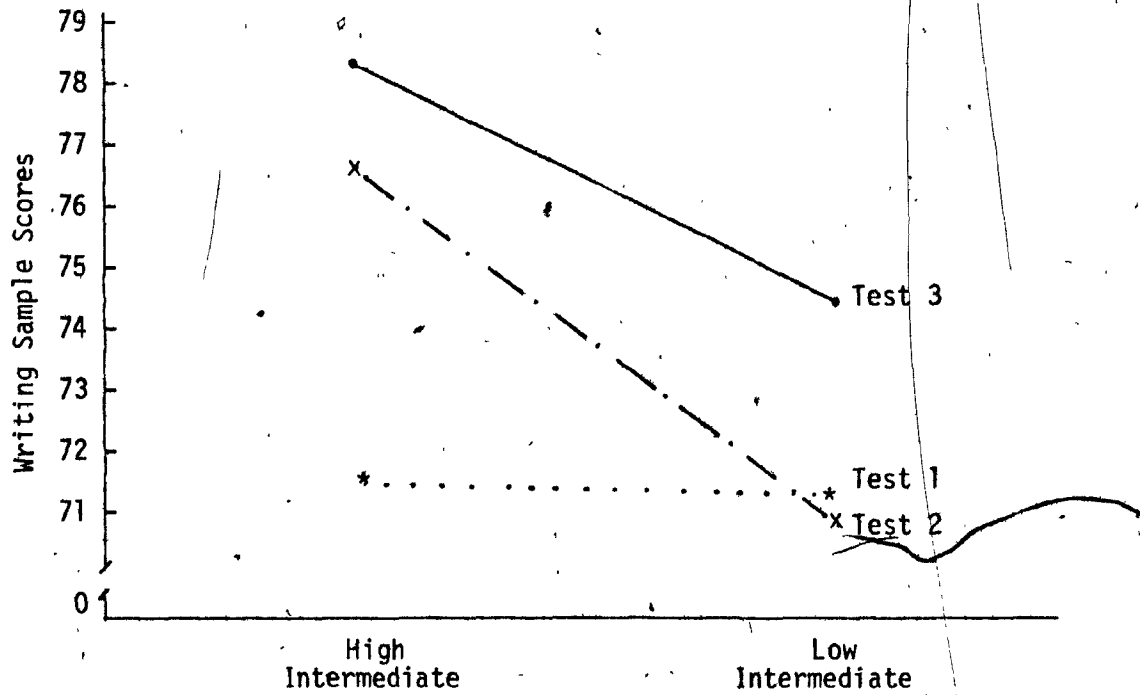
Table 3

Constituent Category Means and Standard Deviations

		Traditional High Ability	Traditional Low Ability	Communicative High Ability	Communicative Low Ability
TEST 1					
Communicability	$\overline{X}$	13.95	12.95	15.40	16.50
and Organization	SD	1.76	3.10	1.71	1.62
Content	$\overline{X}$	20.80	19.60	23.65	24.60
	SD	1.75	3.98	2.81	1.81
Language Use	$\overline{X}$	15.85	13.45	16.85	19.20
	SD	2.22	4.20	3.40	2.21
Vocabulary	$\overline{X}$	14.50	12.55	14.85	16.70
	SD	1.87	2.85	1.68	1.16
Mechanics	$\overline{X}$	2.80	2.70	3.65	3.95
	SD	.75	.79	.71	.60
TEST 2					
Communicability	$\overline{X}$	14.40	12.50	16.40	16.75
and Organization	SD	1.79	2.30	1.54	1.38
Content	$\overline{X}$	22.05	19.05	24.40	24.20
	SD	2.72	3.02	2.17	2.02
Language Use	$\overline{X}$	17.25	13.30	18.65	18.75
	SD	2.85	2.92	2.40	2.21
Vocabulary	$\overline{X}$	15.50	13.50	16.65	16.05
	SD	1.93	1.51	1.46	1.50
Mechanics	$\overline{X}$	3.35	2.80	4.00	3.85
	SD	.88	.59	.66	.53
TEST 3					
Communicability	$\overline{X}$	14.85	12.50	16.90	17.95
and Organization	SD	1.86	2.60	.97	.96
Content	$\overline{X}$	21.95	19.35	24.30	25.60
	SD	2.85	3.64	1.75	1.54
Language Use	$\overline{X}$	17.75	15.15	19.60	20.45
	SD	3.25	3.99	1.05	1.23
Vocabulary	$\overline{X}$	15.35	13.95	16.70	17.35
	SD	1.78	2.10	.92	.94
Mechanics	$\overline{X}$	4.00	3.05	4.45	4.50
	SD	.71	.69	.37	.47

mechanics and language use in the traditional program and communica-
bility and organization in the communicative program, would contribute
a greater amount to the overall difference in total scores.

The first multivariate analysis consisted of a 2 (teaching method)
x 3 (test position) design with repeated measures on the last factor,
using the five constituent categories as dependent measures. The F
statistic for the multivariate test reached statistical significance
$F (1,36)$ 5.28, $p < .0001$. There was a statistically significant teaching
method x proficiency interaction on mechanics and language use factors,
$p < .03$ and $p < .04$ respectively. These two factors measure grammatical
knowledge. The achievement of subjects in the low intermediate level
of the communicative program was comparable to that of the high
intermediate level by the final samples. As well, the factor of communi-
cability and organization achieved significance levels at $p < .0001$ for
the method of instruction. Means and standard deviations are reported in
Table 3. The results are reported in Tables 4 and 5.

The second multivariate analysis was performed on groups pooled
across proficiency. This analysis was carried out to further examine
the contribution of the category communicability and organization to
the total variance in scores. Given the fact that high and low groups
were not treated differently from an instructional point of view, the
groups were collapsed in this analysis. The analysis was thus a 2
(teaching method) x 3 (test position) design with repeated measures on
the last factor, again using the five categories. First, the results
for equality of overall mean vectors achieved significance levels,

Table 4

Multivariate Analysis of Categories by Ability Groups

	Variable	Variance (Error Mean Squares)
Contrast	Communicability and Organization	8.660
	Content	15.898
	Language Use	18.010
	Vocabulary	6.533
	Mechanics	.908
Linear	Communicability and Organization	1.282
	Content	3.285
	Language Use	3.657
	Vocabulary	1.112
	Mechanics	.211
Quadratic	Communicability and Organization	.715
	Content	1.519
	Language Use	2.335
	Vocabulary	1.157
	Mechanics	.151

Degrees of Freedom = 36

Table 5

F-Statistic for Multivariate Test of Equality of Mean Vectors=2.535
(F-Approximation for Likelihood Ratio)

Variable	Hypothesis Mean Square	Step Down F	p Less Than
Contrast:			
Communicability and Organization	52.668	6.081 (1,36)	.018
Content	64.533	.609	.440
Language Use	127.102	1.215	.278
Vocabulary	46.252	1.581	.217
Mechanics,	2.852	1.371	.250
Linear:			
Communicability and Organization	2.112	2.348	.135
Content	3.403	1.592	.216
Language Use	2.278	5.126	.031
Vocabulary	3.612	.918	.346
Mechanics	.528	4.664	.039
Quadratic:			
Communicability and Organization	.150	.006	.934
Content	.026	.187	.669
Language Use	.026	1.364	.254
Vocabulary	2.604	1.927	.178
Mechanics	.176	1.923	.179

$F(1,38) = 4.13$, $p < .0004$. A statistically significant interaction on the category communicability and organization was also present for the experimental teaching method over time. A graphic representation of the teaching method x time interaction on this factor is presented in Figure 3. Tables 6 and 7 present the means and standard deviations as well as the results of this analysis.

Reading and Listening Comprehension Measures

The last set of analyses concerned the evaluation of scores of reading and listening comprehension tests. Two sets of analyses were performed; t-tests for significant differences between groups on total scores for both measures and Pearson product moment correlations among the overall writing, reading and listening scores to assess the relative intercorrelation among them.

The t-tests were performed to determine differences in performance on reading and writing between the experimental and traditional teaching method groups. It was hypothesized that, as with writing, there would be a statistically significant difference between the groups' performance on this measure. It was expected that the reading and listening scores for subjects in the communicative program would be, from a statistical point of view, significantly better than those for the traditional group. The first test on reading scores resulted in a t (38) value of 3.13, statistically significant at the .005 level in favor of the experimental treatment. A second test was performed on listening comprehension scores. The result of this analysis warranted the acceptance of the null

Figure 4

Interaction of Communicability and Organization
for Teaching Method over Time
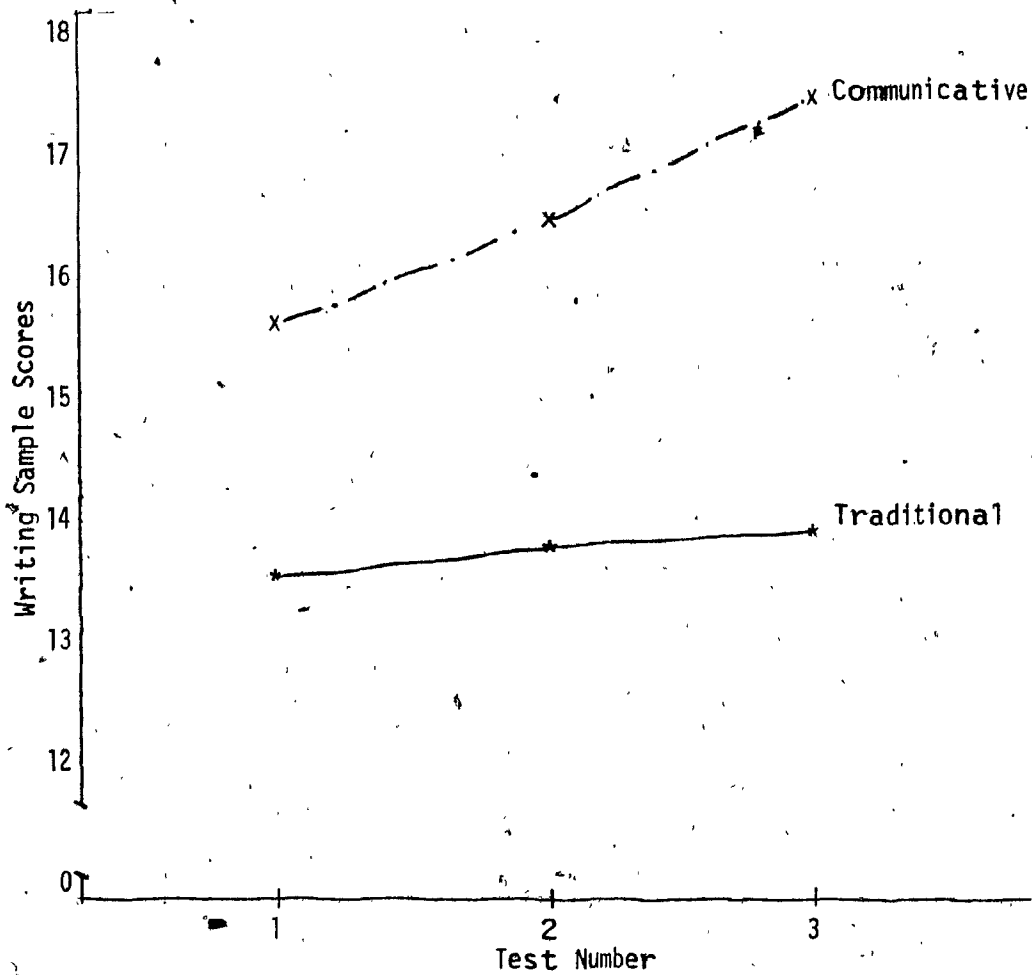
Table 6

Multivariate Analysis of Categories
Pooled Across Ability Groups

	Variable	Variance (Error Mean Squares)
Contrast	Communicability and Organization	9.793
	Content	17.136
	Language Use	20.901
	Vocabulary	7.695
	Mechanics	.984
Linear	Communicability and Organization	8.335
	Content	3.278
	Language Use	3.621
	Vocabulary	1.222
	Mechanics	.279
Quadratics	Communicability and Organization	.723
	Content	1.632
	Language Use	2.579
	Vocabulary	1.428
	Mechanics	.180

Degrees of Freedom = 38

Table 7

F-Statistic for Multivariate Test of Equality of Mean Vectors=4.739
(F-Approximation for Likelihood Ratio)

Variable	Hypothesis Mean Square	Step Down F	p Less Than
Contrast:			
Communicability and Organization	289.852	29.596 (1,38)	.0001
Content	480.000	.114	.737
Language Use	362.268	1.959	.170
Vocabulary	145.200	.954	.335
Mechanics	26.602	3.190	.083
Linear:			
Communicability and Organization	7.812	7.063	.012
Content	.450	2.004	.166
Language Use	.378	1.412	.243
Vocabulary	.028	2.716	.109
Mechanics	.112	3.268	.081
Quadratic:			
Communicability and Organization	.016	.881	.355
Content	.600	1.029	.319
Language Use	.009	.042	.837
Vocabulary	1.134	1.671	.208
Mechanics	.066	.017	.897

hypothesis, $p < .05$.

The intercorrelations among the three measures were all statistically significant: Reading/Writing, $r = .512$, $p < .01$; Reading/Listening, $r = .561$, $p < .01$; Writing/Listening, $r = .364$, $p < .05$.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This thesis hypothesized that subjects enrolled in an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) program based on communicative principles would perform significantly better on writing tasks than those in a traditional grammar based program. The results supported this hypothesis. More precisely, subjects in the communicative program showed superior gains over those in the traditional program on both overall measures and on the key factor, communicability and organization. It was assumed that the placement procedures employed generated equivalent groups at the onset, thus making this comparison possible. The grammar-based group also improved, but scored no better on any measure. Moreover, the reading comprehension abilities of the communicative group were significantly better. Scores on the listening comprehension test, however, do not indicate a statistically significant difference between groups.

Learner Differences

The subjects in both teaching programs improved steadily throughout the course of their programs. However, it was initially contended that the communicative approach would be particularly beneficial to the subjects whose language skills were initially weaker, contrary to the reasoning of other researchers (Johnson, Note 5; Wilkins, Note 6). The teaching method x proficiency group interaction confirmed this hypothesis, while at the same time the progress of the stronger students was also facilitated. It would appear, therefore, that the communicative program is well suited to the wide range of language needs presented by learners who intend to pursue univeristy studies in English when it is not

their mother tongue. It satisfies the requirements for second language acquisition and, in establishing that foundation, does not constrain the individual's purpose. As mentioned above, it has been suggested that this communicative approach is problematic with regard to students entering a program with initially weaker language skills (Johnson, Note 5; Wilkins, Note 6).These results might indicate that, far from being infeasible, this approach represents these learners' best chance to form and test workable hypotheses about the target language. It seems to be as Hatch (1978) suggests, that progress along a communicative continuum is a strong facilitator and motivator of language acquisition. The learner's great store of prior knowledge, both about how language is organized and the information relevant to the topic of discussion, is brought to bear on the task at hand.

These resources are considerable. This communicative approach forces the learner to access and use both existing and emerging networks of meaning. In so doing these networks grow. In the grammar-based program these resources lie largely untapped. Grammar practice characterized by memorization out of context does not appear to strike the learner's acquisition process as deeply. This situation can be particularly frustrating for a beginning learner for whom the disparity between the richness of his/her native language competence and the poverty of target language competence is so painfully apparent.

The Importance of Grammar

This thesis hypothesized that discrete grammar teaching would not result in a concommitant improvement in performance. More precisely, it was expected that in a program which stresses global correction at a higher discourse level, improvement in organizational ability as well as control over discrete grammar would result. Despite the fact that the traditional program taught grammar explicity, grammar usage was not better learned in this program. Grammar rule-giving and practicing through structured exercises were not included as a part of regular classroom activity in the communicative program. When within the course of carrying out a task questions or errors which interfere with meaning arose, they were attended to individually, i.e. examples and explanations were provided.

The results of the multivariate analyses particularly demonstrated the failure of the traditional approach to teach either grammar or communication. Subjects in the experimental group showed superior performance on both grammar measures, i.e. language use and mechanics, as well as communicability and organization. The inference is that grammar is better learned within the framework of higher level discourse organization. This finding is also consistent with the hypothesis, put forward by Burt and Kiparsky (1972) and extended by Parks and Thibaudeau (1981), that feedback on errors affecting comprehensibility improves overall ability.

Integrated Skills

Given the academic purpose of these L_2 programs, improving writing

ability is an important priority. However, competence in this skill does not develop in a void nor is it instructionally treated in a void. The communicative approach assumes that the L_2 learner, at whatever stage of language development, is building a model of the target language. In the classroom, the learner follows a program which teaches mathemagenic skills, i.e. skimming, scanning, pre-viewing from headings, in order to get an overview or distinguish between main ideas and support. The learner is guided to an understanding of rhetorical organization: recognizing or constructing an argument, achieving coherence and cohesion in writing. The program stresses the connection between reading and writing at a discourse organizational level. The recognition of these patterns in written discourse is fostered throughout the program, geared naturally to the constraints of language complexity at each level.

Because of the interrelationship among linguistic skills, it was hypothesized that the subjects competence in carrying out the writing task would be related to their competence in performance on other language measures. In order to ascertain performance of that kind in this study, reading and listening comprehension tests were administered to both groups. The results of these measures support the premise that the communicative approach facilitates the acquisition of these skills also, with both measures revealing higher scores for the communicative group, statistically significant in the case of the reading comprehension scores. The non-significant increase in listening comprehension might

be explained by a look at the range of scores. This test may not have been an accurate indicator of ability for this skill due to a possible ceiling effect. Nonetheless, the results of these measures argue well for insuring the integration of skills on cognitive as well as linguistic grounds.

Methodological Considerations

On the basis of these results, some specific recommendations can be made for program design of EAP courses for foreign students. The most striking implication is that of shifting the basis of course planning from a preoccupation with structuring grammar exercises into predetermined learner interlanguage stages to a basis of ungraded material which challenges and stimulates the learner. By changing the emphasis to content based curriculum the L_2 learner is much better place to know and show the teacher what grammar structures s/he does need. However, a transition of this kind presents difficulties for many teachers.

Teacher training. There are many explanations for the difficulties that would be incurred by instructional designers and teachers in accommodating themselves to the conclusions drawn from these data. First of all, many teachers in English Second Language (ESL) today have been trained in a grammar-based approach. It is difficult to envision the progression of the communicative approach when this runs counter to all one's training. Secondly, the instructional premise of ESL programs, of which this EAP program is one type, has to this day been

largely the eradication of error, classified by grammar type. The
intuitive solution would seem to be to practice the form to perfection.
The appeal to a higher level of discourse does not immediately suggest
itself either as an inherently worthwhile pedagogic pursuit or as a
means to achieve that accuracy.

The communicative approach demands certain competencies of the
teacher. Global error correction and discourse analysis require an
ability to analyse systematic irregularities in the learner's inter-
language. It also entails a shift in instructional focus from gram-
matical realizations of the language to content. This change would
entail a new approach to materials development for EAP purposes. The
training of ESL teachers today does not equip them with either the
overview or the range of skills this type of communicative approach
demands. This study indicates that training which offers these skills
is desirable. It should be remembered, however, that the teacher in a
communicative program of this type does not operate in isolation. This
communicative program offers extensive support to its teachers. To fully
grasp the synergistic nature of this support, it is useful to analyse
this program as a system. To this end, an analysis of the key factors
in EAP program design is made.

Program Design

Like many other instructional systems, the communicative approach
incorporates a number of sub-systems working in concert. The efficacy
of each part and the system as a whole is to some extent dependent upon

the operation of these variables within certain critical parameters.

These should be understood by those interested in designing a communicative program of the kind investigated by this study. The issues which were identified are central to an understanding of how this program achieves its goals. These include: student placement, level placement, core curriculum learner progression through the system, classroom structure, teacher input, and quality control. The following draws upon a cybernetic analysis to instructional design (Mitchell,Note 7; Pratt,Note 8). For the purposes of this discussion, the analysis is intended as a heuristic basis for choice and a guide to the inter-relationship of variables rather than as an operational model. This entails a description of the program's stable operation in terms of basic principles of feedback control, requisite variety and redundant communication channels (Beer, 1974).

Placement. From the standpoint of any instructional system, incoming learners represent variety. The basic operating principle of any instructional system is to match individual variety sufficiently that the learners leave the system with comparable skills. So it is with ESL instruction. However, in comparing the traditional to the communicative program, certain discrepancies in the system-learner match can be noted. These differences stem, perhaps, from the particular interpretation of proficiency underlying the grammar-based approach. As defined, an important goal of this approach is to eradicate discrete grammar errors. Much of the learner's behavior, then, in terms of

developing interlanguage stages or rhetorical experimentation, is not taken as information; it does not inform goals.

The learner's variety within the definition of this program is thereby constrained to aims that engage his/her capability only minimally. As pointed out previously, the learner's store of resources can potentially be drawn upon to acquire a second language. The superior performance of the experimental low ability group, in a communicative program which pushes the learner's acquisition process, must be accounted for in part by the interrelatedness of the placement procedure and the instructional technique. Placement procedures are crucial to the integrity of an L_2 program in that they safeguard the match of language level objectives to incoming learners and ensure continuity throughout the system. A comparison of the placement system reveals the characteristic differences in a conception of the learner and instructional goals in each program.

The traditional program used a version of the Michigan Examination of English Proficiency to place its students into levels. Essentially a test of discrete grammar knowledge, it assesses acquired knowledge, not productive capacity. As a consequence, groups have to be reorganized to reduce the divergent communicative disparity among learners. This reorganization is then made on the basis of writing samples evaluated individually without system-wide guidelines. Valuable time is spent establishing homogeneity of communicative ability within levels as a result of initially trying to fit each learner to the measure

of grammar ability.   As much as a week of valuable program time can be lost to the learner during this reshuffling.

In comparison, the learners in the communicative program undergo an evaluation planned by staff members to match program goals. Its intent is to furnish information about the learners that focuses on higher-level discourse abilities and communicative competence. This is a two-part evaluation. Learners are shown a short animated film. They are then asked to write about the film. The question is stated so as to elicit more than a simple narration of events. Following this, each student is interviewed. This interview serves a number of purposes. Personal information such as language learning background, personality factors, such as timidity-gregariousness, which serve as a predictive indicator of success at language learning, as well as personal goals are elicited. Most importantly, people are asked to discuss the intellectual content of the film to better assess individual competence. A placement team then evaluates both measures.

Each writing sample is read a number of times; assessment is al-ways verified by at least one other reader. On first reading an overall evaluation of discourse control and lexical sophistication is made. Groupings are arranged into beginners, intermediate and advanced cate-gories. These initial groupings are then put through the reading pro-cess a second time to place the learner into the correct ability group (low and high). The oral interview is taken into consideration only during this phase, for as research has shown, while writing performance

is a good indicator of listening and reading competence, speaking

ability may differ (Oller & Hinofotis, 1980). The advantage of this

placement system is to provide criterion-geared information to insure

the homogeneity of ability within the system. As the courses are or-

ganized to make learners aware of discourse organization in reading and

listening and to achieve control over rhetorical organization in writing,

this evaluation provides the teacher with crucial information on the

first day of class. The teacher can quickly assess the needs of the

learners in this regard and organize the instruction effectively from

the start. The learner receives information s/he particularly needs and

can begin immediately to improve. This match of information to the

goals of the system represents a gain in overall stability.

Learner progression through the system. In the traditional pro-

gram every learner progresses through the complement of courses in their

prescribed sequence. Each level is accorded its own set of grammatical

points to master. At any level there is some content which is consi-

dered novel for all learners. As a consequence of this linear progres-

sion in the traditional program it is difficult to match the individual

learner's needs or interlanguage state. The traditional program attenu-

ates the individual's variety in the sense that it perceives ability

within a somewhat narrow band and filters information both to the learner

and the teacher through that perspective.

The communicative program amplifies the incoming variety in at

least two ways. First, the system is designed with overlap to improve

chances of matching a learner's abilities. In as much as the organiz-
ing principles dictate a content based rather than a grammar based core
curriculum, the learner does not "miss" essential grammar points. The
levels are distinguished from each other on the basis of language diffi-
culty, length and density of information, or complexity of ideas and
rhetorical organization. The following diagram (Thibaudeau, Note 9) shows
the progression:

levels	1	BEG.A	BEG.B					
	2		BEG.B	EA				
	3			EA	EB			
	4				EB	IA		
	5					IA	IB	
	6						IB	ADV.
	7						ADV.	ADV.
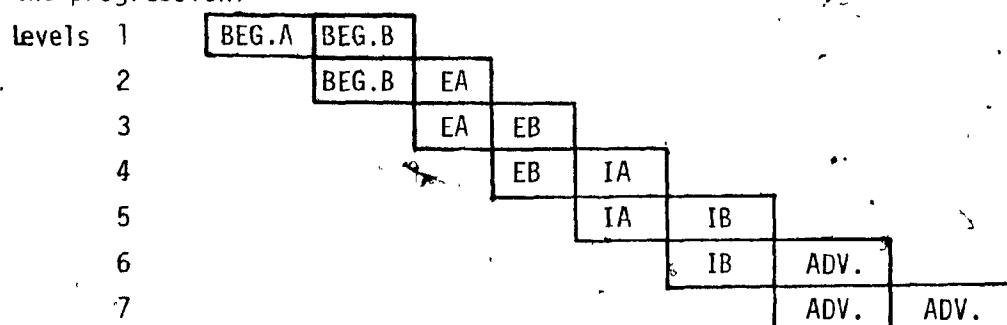
An important feature of this system is the policy of level skipping
A strong learner might begin at level two, skip to level four, then to
level six and leave the system in nine months to enter univeristy within
a year of arrival. A weaker student might do the same in two years.
The advantage here lies in the choice from a variety of paths through
which a learner may reach the advanced level.

Core curriculum. Structuring a core curriculum is a matter of
level and type of objectives, as well as the delineation of an underlying
model of interaction between teacher, the learner and the content
(Macdonald-Ross, 1975). The list structure approach characterizes the
grammar sequencing model of traditional curriculums. It has been sug-
gested that this information is unsuited to sequential structuring

because it is, in some form, required at all levels (Widdowson & Brumfit, 1981). The communicative program reflects its focus on the information-carrying purpose of language in the selection of core curriculum principles. Curriculum structure is based on the selection of challenging and intellectually stimulating material gathered for the most part from authentic sources, organized thematically and graded according to the level of language difficulty. The difference in structure entails a redefinition of the relationships of teacher to learner, teacher to content, learner to learner and learner to content.

. The results of this research demonstrate the effectiveness of this approach over the traditional approach. These results are the product of a system which demands novel behavior from both learner and teacher. The teacher has to get comfortable with the idea of having less control than in the traditional classroom. His/her role as materials developer, facilitator and organizer of instruction is stressed over that of judge and final arbiter of all classtime questions.

This communicative program provides support for teachers who must learn to function within these new norms in two ways. The first consists of a teacher consultancy service. Experienced teachers serve as level consultants. Their functions include orienting new teachers to the resources of the program: in-house materials, new materials, teaching techniques. They observe in-class teaching and provide feedback on the experience to insure a certain standard for program methodology. They assist teachers at the level in the preparation of authentic materials.

Exploiting authentic materials can initially seem a forbidding task; consultants can provide the teachers with guidelines for materials development. Basically, this approach exploits authentic materials in four ways: from the viewpoint of thematic content, for the organizational characteristics at the discourse level, for the manipulation of skills and strategies and for the integration of skills, i.e., reading, listening and writing interface. This broad spectrum for materials development adds both creativity and participation which is methodologically impossible in a grammar-based syllabus.

The second support system is a more informal arrangement of in-house seminars on topics relevant to the principles and practice of the program. These seminars do serve to insure the standards of the program and to encourage teachers both to maintain these standards and improve practice. Sharing information about the classroom practice, experiments in methodology, and research results promotes an atmosphere of co-operation and shared purpose.

Learner to learner interaction. The grammar-based model incorporates a teacher initiation--student response--teacher feedback style interaction which ressembles that of most classrooms. Unfortunately, this structure has a constraining effect on interaction in the L_2 classroom (Holmes, 1978; Long, 1975). It reduces both time and channels available for real communication. By comparison, the communicative program's student-centered model of small group work dedicates class time to interaction and results in an increase of channels available for

communication. The learner in this program is called on to fullfill roles that are unfamiliar and perhaps slightly threatening. Initially, the learner may not be comfortable with the demands of self-direction. The teacher then must "prepare the students with strategies and a new... outlook...to ensure participation of all members" (Parks & Thibaudeau, 1981, pp. 3-4). Within the structure of an information-sharing activity, the learner is given the opportunity and a structure within which to direct the course of classroom activity.

Quality control. The level objectives for the communicative program are expressed in terms of ability to negotiate integrated language activities. Expressed thusly, these objectives act as a control which ensures consistent quality across and within levels of the program. They provide direction for the type and structure of the activity. They indicate the skills needed to carry out these activities. The type of activity increases in the complexity of demands made on the learner as s/he proceeds through the levels of the program. By way of example, the complete list of present objectives for the low intermediate level is included in Appendix D. The marking criteria enclosed are intended to guide the kind of feedback teachers provide for learner correction (see Appendix D). The final exams evaluate the learner's ability to perform language activities similar in type to ones normally carried out in class time (see Appendix D).

Program development. The systemic nature of this approach and the benefits which accrue to the learner might best be illustrated in a

short examination of the developmental growth of the program. The

introduction of major segments of the overall program were first in-

corporated into classes at the intermediate level and above. It was

observed that learners entering this level had difficulty adapting to

the change in approach. In response, work was carried out to incorpor-

ate this approach into beginning and elementary level classes. This

process was completed after three sessions. After this had been ac-

complished, it was observed that learners who came up through the system

were better able and more efficient at performing classroom tasks, less

reliant on teacher direction, engaging and encouraging other learners

in conversation, at the intermediate level.Concurrently, teachers at the

intermediate level over a three session time period began to realize

the need for an exploitation of materials which focused on building the

learners understanding and use of underlying cognitive skills and stra-

tegies. Once incorporated, these changes led to an increase in level of

language difficulty particularly at the higher intermediate and ad-

vanced levels. Naturally there are limits to what is possible. However,

this approach utilizes teacher input to enable the system to upgrade its

own objectives and, thus, remains open to change.

As stated previously, the cybernetic analysis of the communicative

approach was intended as a heuristic framework for understanding the

inter-relationships of major elements of the system. The justification

for an analysis of this type lies in the applied nature of the research

carried out in this study. If for the purposes of design or experimental

replication, results comparable to those evidenced by subjects of the
experimental group are anticipated, the operational functioning of these
key elements should be thoroughly understood. The above sections were
intended to serve this purpose.

Implications

The results of this thesis call into question a structural basis
for EAP L_2 programs for foreign students. Grammatical sequencing even
in the form of the notional-functional presentation does not offer a
theoretical foundation of sufficient breadth. The experimental program
in this study features a content-based syllabus, organized thematically,
graded according to language difficulty, whose pedagogic focus is dis-
course organization. Subjects in this group demonstrated superior per-
formance on measures of three central language skills.

The communicative approach teaches skills and strategies associ-
ated with a "learning to learn" perspective (Alexander, 1981). In-class
tasks incorporate mathemagenic activities such as pre-viewing, skimming,
and scanning. The theoretical basis for devising these activites draws
on first language research into processes of reading and writing
(Alexander, 1981; Flower, Note 10; Taylor, 1975). Future research might
investigate the effect of these activities on the comprehension of
reading passages for foreign students in an EAP program.

Another issue arising from this research which could be addressed
in future is the criteria for placement procedures. As had been pointed
out, the placement procedure critically affects the continuity and

effectiveness of the program. One of the factors which affects placement is evaluation of the writing sample. The communicative program evaluates writing samples along lines broadly described as control over discourse organization. This evaluation comprises the conventions of coherence and cohesion, as well as lexical complexity. Given the nature of the program, these criteria have proven very useful. However, the distinctions for placement between levels of categories remain fuzzy. It would be useful to investigate the way in which these criteria differentiate between levels and categories. Attention might be paid to the necessity for matching the criteria for evaluation to program aims. The mesh of these two might provide a rationale for constructing objective measures which is currently lacking in present research (Brodkey & Young, 1981; Jacobs, 1981).

,This research chose to investigate the comparative gain in language ability of subjects who underwent different instructional treatments. Having established program superiority, research into the nature and effectiveness and future improvement of skills and strategies which are taught within an EAP program could proceed. Our efforts to ameliorate both our understanding and instructional treatment of second language learning have intrinsic rewards. Cross-cultural experiences enrich us all as individuals and as a community.

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APPENDIX A
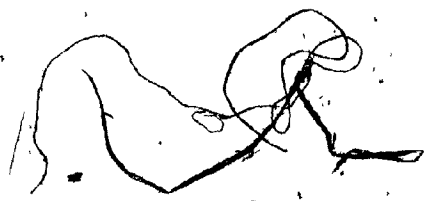
Distribution of Subjects by Native Language   n=10

| | Native Language | | | |
	Spanish	French	Arabic	Other
Traditional High Ability	7	3	0	0
Communicative High Ability	7	1	2	0
Traditional, Low Ability	4	3	1	2
Communicative Low Ability	5	0	2	3

Distribution of Subjects by Age   n=10

| | Age Groups | | | | | |
	17-21	22-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45
Traditional High Ability	5	1	2	2	0	0
Communicative High Ability	9	1	0	0	0	0
Traditional Low Ability	2	3	4	0	0	1
Communicative Low Ability	5	3	2	0	0	0

APPENDIX B

Writing Sample No. 1

Composition Topic: "Eskimo Life: Past and Present"

1. <u>Topic Introduction</u>: Time allotment - five - seven minutes.

Questions: Eskimos, Who are they

Where do they live

How have they lived in the past

Has this lifestyle changed, How?

This is a teacher centered activity involving the whole group. The topic questions are suggested as information eliciting devices to stimulate interest and offer content for the writing. The information solicited furing this process might be noted on the blackboard for later referal. The questions posed and elicited information should be noted by the teacher along with the amount of time spent for this segment.

2. <u>Listening Comprehension</u>: Time allotment - ten - twelve minutes.

Students should be told that they are going to be read some information about Eskimo life, past and present. The first time it is read they should just listen, get the general idea. The passage will then be read a second time and students should take notes to be used for later reference while writing. The first reading is done at near normal speed, i.e. four minutes. The second is done at near normal speed with slight pauses at three-sentence intervals to allow time for writing, with a slightly longer pause between paragraphs.

3. <u>Note Comparison</u>: Time allotment - five minutes

Students meet in groups of three to compare information. Students should be told to get missing information from others in their group. Teacher should not offer additional information but clarify or repeat what was read and offer encouragement.

4. <u>Writing</u>: Time allotment - fifty minutes

Topic is assigned; written on the board. Students should be told how much time they will have. They should be told to: think for five minutes, write for forty minutes, revise in the final five. Students should not be constantly reminded of the time but told when five minutes are remaining. Teacher must not suggest sentence formation or organization to individuals but can provide vocabulary items. Students may be allowed dictionaries.

Listening Comprehension: "Eskimo Life: Past and Present"

Today the life of the Eskimo is quite different due mainly to the influence of white culture. The modern world has introduced the Inuit to the world of television, health services, education and business. Now permanent settlements have been established and most activities are centered there. One important activity which is now undertaken in the permanent settlements is the production of works of art and ·crafts on a much more organized scale than was practiced in the past.

However, while some of these changes have brought benefits, others have resulted in the destruction of their traditional values and lifestyles and caused anxiety for the people. The area of transportation offers a striking example of how a single piece of machinery can affect a group of people in many ways.

After the introduction of the snowmobile, an automotive vehicle for travel on snow, the hunting range of the Inuit greatly increased. They were now capable of travelling greater distances in shorter periods of time. However, with the snowmobile came some problems. Because the territory had expanded, it was no longer big enough to accommodate everyone. Several animals were overhunted and are gradually becoming extinct. This has led to decreasing amounts of certain food supplies. In addition, the Inuit have suffered a hearing loss in the high frequency range, a result of the powerful sound of the snowmobile.

Writing Sample No. 2

Composition Topic: "The Problems of Stress"

Teachers' Instructions

1. <u>Topic Introduction</u>: Time allotment - five - seven minutes.

Questions: What is stress?

How does it affect you?

Why do people suffer from stress?

How can it be avoided, relieved?

This is a teacher centered activity involving the whole group.
The topic questions are suggested as information eliciting devices to
stimulate interest and offer content for the writing. The information
solicited during this process might be noted on the blackboard for
later referral. The questions posed and elicited information should
be noted by the teacher along with the exact amount of time spent for
this segment.

2. <u>Listening Comprehension</u>: Time allotment - ten - twelve minutes.

Students should be told that they are going to be read some in-
formation about stress; its causes, effects and possible solutions.
The first time it is read they should just listen, to get the general
idea of the passage. The passage will then be read a second time and
students should take notes to be used for later referral while writing.
The first reading is done at near normal speed (about four minutes).
The second is done at near normal speed with slight pauses at three-

sentence intervals to allow time for writing, with a slightly longer pause between paragraphs.

3. <u>Note Comparison</u>: Time allotment - five minutes.

Students meet in groups of three to compare information. Students should be told to get missing inofrmation from others tn their group. Teacher should not offer additional information but clarify or repeat what was read and offer encouragement.

4. <u>Writing</u>: Time allotment - fifty minutes.

Topic is assigned; written on the board. Students should be told how much time they will have. They should be told to: think for five minutes, write for forty minutes, revise in the final five. Students should not be constantly reminded of the time but told when five minutes are remaining. Teacher must not suggest sentence formation or organization to individuals but can provide vocabulary items. Students may be allowed dictionaries.

Listening Comprehension: "Relax and Live."

It is commonly believed that only rich middle-aged businessmen suffer from stress. In fact anyone may become ill as a result of stress if they experience a lot of worry over a long period and their health is not particularly good. Stress can be a friend or an enemy: it can warn you that you are under too much pressure and should change your way of life. It can kill you if you don't notice the warning signals. Doctors agree that it is probably the biggest single cause of illness in the western world.

What does stress do to our bodies?

When we are very frightened and worried out bodies produce certain chemicals to help us fight what is troubling us. Unfortunately these chemicals produce the energy needed to run away fast from an object of fear, and in modern life that's often impossible. If we don't use up these chemicals, or if we produce too many of them, they may actually harm us. The parts of the body that are most affected by stress are the stomach, heart, skin, head and back. Stress can cause car accidents, heart attacks, and alcoholism, and may even drive people to suicide.

What causes stress in the first place?

Our living and working conditions may put us under stress. Over-crowding in large cities, traffic jams, competition for jobs, uncertainty about the future, any big change in our lives, may be stressful. Some British doctors have pointed out that one of Britain's worst flu waves

came within weeks of the country changing to decimal coinage. Also if you have changed jobs or moved house in recent months you are more likely to fall ill than if you haven't. And more people commit suicide in times of inflation.

What can we do about stress?

As with all illnesses prevention is better than cure. A very common danger signal is the inability to relax. 'When you're taking work home, when you can't enjoy an evening with friends, when you haven't time for outdoor exercise - that is the time to stop and ask yourself whether your present life really suits you,' says one family doctor. 'Then it's time to join a relaxation class, or take up dancing, painting or gardening.'

Writing Sample No. 3

Composition Topic: "The Problem of Overpopulation"

1. Topic Introduction: Time allotment - five - seven minutes.

Questions: What is overpopulation?

How does it affect our countries?

What are some of the causes?

What are some possible solutions?

This is a teacher centered activity involving the whole group. The topic questions are suggested as information eliciting devices to stimulate interest and offer content for the writing. The information solicited during this process might be noted on the blackboard for later referral. The questions posed and elicited information should be noted by the teacher along with the amount of time spent for this segment.

2. Writing: Time allotment - fifty minutes

Topic is assigned; written on the board. Students should be told how much time they will have. They should be told to: think for five minutes, write for forty minutes, revise in the final five. Students should not be constantly reminded of the time but told when five minutes are remaining. Teacher must not suggest sentence formation or organ- ization to individuals but can provide vocabulary items. Students may be allowed dictionaries.

Teachers' Instructions

Important.   Hand out and collect each part of the exam
              separately in the following order:

              1. Reading
              2. Listening
              3. Writing

Reading: Allow approximately one hour

Listening: N.B.

              - during the first reading have the students
                listen for the general meaning and write the
                main idea

              - during the second reading have the students
                take notes'

              - hand out worksheets after second reading

              - leave enough time for students to read worksheets
                before the third reading,

              - during the third reading students should check
                their answers

NAME: _____

READING COMPREHENSION

Read the following passage and complete the exercises that follow.

(1) Air pollution is one of the most serious problems presently facing government and industry. (2) It is not, however, a new problem. (3) References to it date back to the fourteenth century when coal was introduced as a source of heat. (4) During the Industrial Revolution the problem became intensified and today air pollution has reached new heights as a direct result of our increasing urbanization, industrialization and use of the automobile.

(5) The greatest source of air pollutants results from the combustion of fossil fuels such as coal and oil. (6) Industrial activities such as iron and steel manufacturing, metal smelting, oil refining, pulp and paper and chemical and petrochemical operations are also major sources of air pollutants. (7) An inventory of Canadian emissions for 1970 compiled by the Department of the Environment divided pollution sources into five categories with the following results: transportation, 56.9%; industrial processes, 24.5%; and miscellaneous, 7.6%.

(8) Two of the contaminants of the environment are sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide. (9) The former is a major problem in urban and industrial areas where large quantities of coal and oil are used for the generation of electric power, steam and heat. (10) In most urban areas the average concentration of sulphur dioxide varies with the season with the highest level being recorded during the coldest months of the year. (11) Sulphur dioxide is also a major waste product in the smelting of sulphide ores, refining of petroleum and manufacture of pulp and paper. (12) The second major pollutant, carbon monoxide, originates primarily from the exhaust of motor vehicles with smaller amounts coming from other forms of combustion. (13) Concentrations over city streets vary with the density of city traffic. (14) The highest concentrations are recorded in commercial and industrial districts of large cities. (15)

In comparing the two major pollutants sulphur dioxide has more severe effects than carbon monoxide. (16) That is, if you compare equal amounts of the two gases, the effects of sulphur dioxide are more deadly.

(17) Air pollution in the urban environment affects human health. (18) The effects can be classified into two main categories. (19) The first type causes discomfort and annoyance. (20) Included in this category are eye and nasal irritations and odors. (21) Although these effects may not result in any permanent physical impairment, they are experienced by a large segment of the population and are therefore more likely to determine public reaction. (22) The second category of health affects involves actual physical injury. (23) There have been air pollution disasters in many parts of the world. (24) The best known of these occurred in London in December, 1952, when a four day period of still air caused pollution to accumulate in a thick fog. (25) Months later a review of mortality statistics revealed that 4,000 excess deaths had occurred during that period and that the cardiorespiratory illness rate had increased to more than twice the normal rate for that period.

(26) Air pollution episodes are of course alarming but of greater concern today is the long-term effect on human health. (27) Even relatively low levels of contaminants affect those who live in a continuously polluted atmosphere. (28) Air pollution is no doubt a contributing factor to the rising incidence of chronic respiratory diseases including, lung cancer, emphysema, bronchitis and asthma. (29) In general, these chronic diseases develop slowly over long periods of time.

(30) Present air pollution control is inadequate since it is too often limited by the costs involved. (31) However, the City of London is a good example of what can be done. (32) There, the conversion to smokeless fuel and a policy of government subsidies for modifying furnaces and grates have performed a visible miracle. (33) Londoners have bought themselves 50% more winter sunshine and visibility has tripled to

four miles. (34) The thick fogs are gone and varieties of birds which haven't been seen for years are now reappearing. (35) The success of programs such as London's and increasing public awareness of the dangers of pollution are two factors that are influencing governments around the world to pass pollution-control legislation.

NAME: _____

Part A.

Identify contextual references by completing the sentences below.

1. In sentence 2, <u>it</u> refers to _____
   _____

2. In sentence 3, <u>it</u> refers to _____
   _____

3. In sentence 9, <u>the former</u> refers to _____
   _____

4. In sentence 15, <u>the two major pollutants</u> refers to _____
   _____

5. In sentence 16, <u>the two gases</u> refers to _____
   _____

6. In sentence 21, <u>these effects</u> refers to _____
   _____

7. In sentence 24, <u>these</u> refers to _____
   _____

8. In sentence 25, <u>during that period</u> refers to _____
   _____

9. In sentence 30, <u>it</u> refers to _____
   _____

10. In sentence 32, <u>there</u> refers to _____
    _____

Part B.

Write "T" in the space in the first set of brackets if the following statements are true, and "F" if they are not, _according to the information contained in the passage_. In the second set of brackets write the number(s) of the sentence(s) which provide you with the necessary information.

1. Air pollution is a recent problem ( ) ( )

2. The Industrial Revolution had a major effect on air pollution. ( ) ( )

3. Industrial processes are the primary source of air pollution. ( ) ( )

4. Concentrations of sulphur dioxide in the air remain at approximately the same level all year. ( ) ( )

5. Sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide have an equal effect on the environment. ( ) ( )

6. Pollutants which irritate the eyes and nose are serious because they cause permanent damage to human health. ( ) ( )

7. Many deaths have been directly related to air pollution disasters. ( ) ( )

8. Chronic diseases such as emphysema, asthma and bronchitis are caused by air pollution disasters like the London 'inversion' of 1952. ( ) ( )

9. Money is a factor in air pollution control. ( ) ( )

10. Changing the type of fuel and improving the equipment used to heat buildings has proven to be an effective anti-pollution measure. ( ) ( )

Part C.

Find the following information in the reading passage. Write the number of the sentence that contains the information. In some cases more than one sentence number is required.

1. Government data on pollution sources:

   _____

2. Reasons sulphur dioxide is a problem in cities and industrial areas.

   _____

3. The source of carbon monoxide pollution.

   _____

4. Classification of the effects of air pollution on health.

   _____

5. Effects of the London air pollution disaster of 1952.

   _____

6. The relationship of air pollution to chronic disease.

   _____

7. Effects of pollution control measures in one european city.

   _____

Part D.

The following exercise deals with the first four paragraphs only.
Choose from among the three possibilities listed for each
paragraph the one which expresses the main idea of the paragraph.
If you do not think that any is suitable, then write your own.

1. Paragraph 1

   a) effects of air pollution
   b) the Industrial Revolution
   c) history of air pollution
   d) _____

2. Paragraph 2

   a) fossil fuels
   b) effects of pollution
   c) industrial development
   d) _____

3. Paragraph 3

   a) two major air pollutants
   b) the effects of sulphur dioxide
   c) the effects of carbon monoxide
   d) _____

4. Paragraph 4

   a) air pollution and death
   b) the effect of urban pollution on health
   c) pollution and the urban environment
   d) _____

Listening Comprehension Script (For teachers use only)

STUDENT INSTRUCTIONS ARE:

You will hear the listening passage three times. The first
time listen for the general meaning. The second time take
notes. Before you hear it a third time you will be given a
worksheet. Try to answer the worksheet from your notes.
When you hear the listening passage the third time try to
get the rest of the information you need to answer the work-
sheet. Add the information to your notes. Complete the
worksheet.

One of the great problems of the twentieth century is environ-
mental pollution. In this second half of the century man has become
more aware of the dangers of pollution. Consequently, governments
have begun passing laws aimed at protecting the environment. Some of
these laws are designed to control pollution by preventing the use of
certain fuels and poor quality equipment which can increase the problem.
Other laws attempt to fight pollution by restricting the amount of
pollutants which can be released into the environment.

The earliest anti-pollution law was enacted nearly a century ago
when the city of Chicago passed an anti-smoke by-law in 1881. In more
recent decades national legislation has become more important than local
legislation as part of the anti-pollution effort. A Clean Air Act was
passed in England in 1956. In the United States, a similar law was
passed in 1963. A Water Quality Act became law there two years later.
Canada passed Clear Air Legislation in 1971.

At the international level there has been pressure for more anti-
pollution action by governments. In June, 1964, experts from the
United States, Japan and 17 European countries met in Strasbourg, France
to plan a campaign against air pollution. In August of the same year,
an International Conference on Water Pollution was held in Tokyo, Japan.
Since that time, there has been an increasing number of conferences in
the area of environmental pollution. It seems highly likely that further
pollution-control legislation will result from this effort.

LISTENING COMPREHENSION   ()   NAME: _____

INSTRUCTIONS: Your will hear the listening passage three times. The
               first time listen for the general meaning and write
               the main idea. The second time take notes. Before
               you hear it a third time you will be given a worksheet.
               Try to answer the worksheet from your notes. When you
               hear the listening passage the third time try to get
               the rest of the information you need to answer the
               worksheet. Add the information to your notes. Complete
               the worksheet.

PART A.   Main Idea

Part B.   Notes. Take notes while listening to the passage.

LISTENING COMPREHENSION   ·NAME: _____

Part C. Circle the correct answer according to the information in the
         listening passage.

1. The main focus of this passage is
    à) great problems of the twentieth century
    b) international conferences
    c) pollution control legislation

2. Pollution can be controlled by
    a) banning the use of certain fuels
    b) controlling the amount of pollutants in the environment
    c) both a and b

3. The first anti-pollution law was passed
    a) very recently
    b) in the nineteenth century
    c) several hundred years ago

4. The anti-pollution laws mentioned in the passage
    a) all deal with air pollution
    b) all deal with water pollution
    c) most deal with air pollution

Part D. Indicate whether the following statements are true (T) or
         false (F) according to the information in the listening passage.
         If a statement is false put a line through the part that is
         false and write the "true" information below in note form.

(   ) 1. In order to protect the environment many governments have passed
          anti-pollution laws.

(   ) 2. All anti-pollution laws restrict the amount of pollutants which
          can be released into the environment.

( ) 3. Local legislation to control pollution is more important than national legislation.

( ) 4. The first nation-wide legislation for clean air was passed in England.

( ) 5. The two international conferences on pollution in 1964 dealt with the same kind of pollution.

LEVEL IA   READING COMPREHENSION

Answer Key

Part A.

1. air pollution
2. air pollution
3. sulphur dioxide
4. sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide
5. sulphur dioxide and carbon monoxide
6. eye and nose irritations and odors
7. air pollution disasters
8. 4 days in December, 1952
9. present air pollution control
10. London   total 5

Part B.

1.	F	2 (3)	6.	F	20,21
2.	T	4	7.	T	25
3.	F	5 (6,7)	8.	F	28,29
4.	F	10	9.	T	30
5.	F	15 (16)	10.	T	32

total 10

Part C.

1.	7		5.	25
2.	9 (11)		6.	28
3.	12		7.	33,34
4.	19, 22 (20,25)			

total 7

Part D.

1. c   2. write own   3. A   4. B   total 8

Divide by 3   30

Reading TOTAL   10

Answer Key   LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Part A.   Notes   7 marks

Part B.   1. c)
          2. c)   8 marks
          3. B)
          4. c)

Part C.   1. T   Some anti-pollution ...   )
          2. F   National legislation ... than local legislation) 5 marks
          3. F   One with air pollution. One with water pollution)
          4. T
          5. F

(1 mark for true/1 mark for false only if corrected)

                                              Divide by 2   20

                                              Listening TOTAL   10

                                              Writing TOTAL   10

                                              EXAM TOTAL   30

APPENDIX C

LEVEL OBJECTIVES - INTENSIVE PROGRAM

Intermediate A - Intermediate B

INTRODUCTION: Students at this level are making the transition to the particular activities of an academic environment. In this level students will be introduced to study skills: making an outline, note-taking and using a dictionary. The objectives will be accomplished through newspaper presentations, discussions, EAP reading and writing materials and videos.

A. Discussions and Related Activities:

Purpose: to enable students to initiate and participate in discussions

Description:

1. Students should be able to use a short reading passage of general interest as the basis for discussion after answering comprehension questions orally.

2. Students should be able to select a topic of general interest suitable for class discussion, prepare an oral introduction and lead a discussion.

B. Academic Reading and Writing and Related Activities:

Purpose: to introduce students to the type of reading and writing activities necessary for academic purposes

Description:

a) students should be familiar with the techniques of skimming for the general idea and scanning for particular information in periodicals, newspaper articles and text-book-like material designed for language learners.

b) students should be able to do intensive reading. They should be able to recognize main points and contextual reference and be able to make inferences, answer comprehensive questions and defend their answers orally.

c) students should be able to develop outlines based on reading, discussions and video.

d) students should be able to write expository compositions. The focus should be on organization and should include an opening and closing paragraph and main ideas and supporting details.

C. Listening Comprehension and Related Activities:

   Purpose: to enable students to understand ungraded
            listening material

   Description:

   1. Listening comprehension passage

      a) students should be able to identify the main idea of
         passages and answer worksheets.

      b) students should be able to work in groups in order to
         reconstruct listening passages from notes.

   2. Video

      a) students should be able to follow general interest
         and public affairs programs in the video lab.

      b) students should be able to take notes and work from
         them to do worksheets designed to aid their
         comprehension.

      c) students should be able to discuss their notes in
         groups.

D. Newspaper Presentations:

   Purpose: to give students practice in gathering information
            from ungraded reading material of general interest
            and passing this information on to other students

   Description: -

   1. Students should be able to:

      a) skim newspapers and periodicals to select articles of
         general interest appropriate for presentation in class.

      b) make well-organized notes on the articles identifying
         main and supporting ideas.

      c) present the articles orally from notes.

   2. Students should also be able to:

      d) follow and understand the essential points of newspaper
         or magazine presentation and take well-organized notes.

      e) write a summary of the presentation in paragraph form.
         The summary should include the main ideas and
         supporting details in a logical order.

MARKING CRITERIA

Level IA

A. Discussion: 10 marks

This mark is for discussions based on reading passages as well as discussions introduced by students. (See level objectives). At this level the student should be able to express his ideas clearly and use conversational strategies listed in the level objectives.

B. Academic Reading and Writing and Related Activities: 30 marks

This mark includes an evaluation of the student's ability to deal with reading, writing and discussion of an academic type.

a) reading, including discussion of reading materials (15 marks)

b) writing (15 marks)

- writing units (EAP type)
- compositions based on reading, videos and discussions

C. Listening Comprehension and Related Activities: 15 marks

This mark is based on student's worksheets and notes on listening passages and videos.

D. Newspapaer Presentations: 15 marks

This mark is divided into 3 parts.

a) presentation (5 marks)
   - notes on the article
   - oral presentation
   - responses to questions and requests for clarification

b) (5 marks)
   note-taking - the notes should identify main ideas and supporting details

c) (5 marks)
   summary - summaries should accurately reflect the main ideas identified in the notes.

IA

1. <u>Organization</u>

      30

    -appropriate statement of topic sentence in paragraphs

    -appropriate statement of thesis (controlling idea) in composition (introduction)

    -main ideas appropriately supported (body)

    -appropriate concluding statements (conclusion)

2. <u>Content</u>

      25

    -relevance of ideas

    -clarity of ideas

    -vocabulary

3. <u>Grammar</u>

      30

    -word order

    -parallelism

    -sequence of tenses

    -clause/sentence distinction

    -subordination

    -appropriate use of markers of chronology, listing, transition, contrast, cause and effect, exemplification

4. <u>Mechanics</u>

      15

    -punctuation

    -indentation

    -spelling

    -capitalization

(for teachers only)

TEACHER'S INSTRUCTIONS

(Gold)

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

IMPORTANT: Hand out and collect each part of the exams separately in the following order:

1) Reading
2) Listening (Video)
3) Writing

READING: Allow approximately one hour

LISTENING:
(Video)
1½ hours

The video consists of a twenty-minute segment of the "Gold" National Geographic program. However, the program is not shown continuously. At 354 on the video "counter", the video is stopped, advanced to 431 and then shown until 487. India is the topic of the last section.

. This is shown three times

. Students listen and take notes

. Hand out the worksheet and have students answer from their notes

. Collect worksheets & notes from students

WRITING:
. Students should prepare and hand in an outline
. Give students line paper for the composition
. Allow approximately (1 hour)

LEVEL IA

NAME: _____

I.   READING COMPREHENSION

Read the following passage and complete the exercises that follow.

(1) Since ancient times gold has played a major role in the lives of men.   (2) It beckoned Alexander the Great to march into Persia and made the Spanish and Portugese sail their ships into unknown seas.   (3) At present it continues to have an effect on the nations of the world as a major currency.

(4) Gold is found both on the suface and in the depths of the earth.   (5) Nature and time have combined their efforts to break up some of the original rocks.   (6) As a result, much gold has been washed down from hills and mountains and settled in river beds.   (7) The richest deposits, however, are found in the depths and not on the surface of the earth.   (8) The search for gold has already led men deeper into the earth than anything else and with the use of modern technology they are planning to go still deeper.   (9) It is hoped that the new rockcutting machines which are fast replacing dynamite will help in this quest.

(10) The world's richest gold-bearing deposit which was discovered in 1886 lies in South Africa.   (11) Here fifty mines yield more than nine hundered tons or two-thirds of the world's production of gold a year.   (12) This enormous amount of ore is extracted despite the fact that it takes two and a half tons of rock to produce one ounce of gold.   (13) The extraction process is a difficult one.   (14) Mine workers face constant discomfort and danger.   (15) Often the men have to work crouched between rock shelves as many places are hardly high enough to sit up. /(16) The temperature, which can rise as high as 105° F by the 10,000 foot level, is a problem.   (17) These exceedingly high temperatures bring the danger of heatstroke.

,(18) Mine owners try to counteract this danger by requiring newly-hired miners to undergo a special training program to build up the heat tolerance necessary for working in a mine. (19) It is neither pleasant nor safe work, yet men continue to sign up for these jobs year after year and there is no shortage of help.

(4)
(20) Statistics reveal that, in the past 6,000 years, 80,000 metric-tons of gold have been mined. (21) The biggest single national reserve of gold, eight thousand five hundred and eight-four tons, belongs to the United States. (22) Half of this is stored in Fort Knox and the rest is scattered in several other places in the United States. (23) The biggest accumulation of gold anywhere, twelve thousand six hundred metric tons, is stored in the vault of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York. (24) This gold is the property of eight nations.

(5)
(25) There is as well a great tradition attached to gold. (26) It occupies an exhalted place in many cultures. (27) In Ghana, in West Africa, it is believed that a dead man should get a bit of gold, preferably gold dust straight from a river and tied in a little bundle to his loincloth, before buriel. (28) In Japan, there is a three hundred thirteen and a half pound tub made of twenty-two carat gold. (29) It is the largest gold object in the world and it is believed that a dip taken in this precious tub will add a year to your life. (30) These beliefs join the traditions of many parts of the world.

(6)
(31) In recent years, gold has been commonly used in science and technology. (32) The ability of gold to reflect the infrared rays of the sun has brought it into demand in such diverse places as office windows and astronauts space helmets. (33) It can be liquified and then spread exceedingly thinly over the surface of a window. (34) This layer of gold on the window reflects a large portion of the scorching infrared rays of the sun. (35) At the same time, because the gold is spread so thinly, light can still pass through the window.

(36) Consequently, while people can see out, relatively little
heat can come in. (37) This reduces the need for air-conditioning
and conserves energy. (38) Similarly, gold is spread in the
plastic visors of airtight space helmets worn by astronauts. (39)
Here it prevents their heads from becoming dangerously hot.

(7) (40) Other characteristics of gold include that fact that it is
not malleable, that it is such a fine conductor of electric currents
and that it doesn't corrode. (41) For these reasons it is particu-
larly useful for pocket calculators, T.V. sets and computers. (42)
In short, it is a universal metal.

PART A.   NAME: _____

Write "T" in the space in the first set of brackets if the following
statements are true, and "F" if they are not, <u>according to the</u>
<u>information contained in the passage.</u> In the second set of brackets
write the number(s) of sentence(s) which provide you with the
necessary information.

1. Gold has been deposited in river beds as a result
    of natural processes.   ( )   ( )

2. Whereas in the past gold production was encouraged,
    today, people are not anxious to increase that
    production.   ( )   ( )

3. The working conditions in the mines demand that a
    miner be trained for this work.   ( )   ( )

4. The gold in Fort Knox belongs to eighty nations.   ( )   ( )

5. Because gold is heat reflectant, it is used to coat
    the windows of large office buildings.   ( )   ( )

6. There is only one principal reason for the
    technological use of gold - it can be spread evenly
    on many surfaces.   ( )   ( )

PART B.   NAME: _____

<u>Short Answer Section</u>.   Provide short but complete answers to the
following questions.

1.   Explain by what process gold is extracted.

2.   Where is most gold found?

3.   How will gold be mined in the future?

4.   List the evidence given to support the fact that extracting
     gold is difficult:

5.   In what way are mineowners trying to lessen the danger of heatstroke?

6.   Does the difficulty of mining work have an effect on the availa-
     bility of manpower for the job? Explain.

7.   What are the properties of this metal which make it ideally suited
     for scientific and technological uses?

PART B. (cont'd)

8. Where is the largest national reserve located and to whome does it belong?

9.
9. Explain the Japanese belief concerning gold.

10. Explain the difference between the traditional belief concerning gold in West Africa and in Japan.

PART C. Main Ideas

1. The best heading for Paragraph 1 is:

    a. The Conquest of the Ancient World
    b. Gold - Its Effect on Man from Past to Present
    c. Gold - The Major Currency of the World
    d. your own heading: _____

2. The main idea of Paragraph 3 is:

    a. The working conditions in South African mines
    b. The gold extraction process in South African mines
    c. The discomfort and danger of mining
    d. your own heading:_____

3. State the Main Idea of Paragraph 5.

    _____

4. The Main Idea of Paragraph 6: _____

    _____

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

NAME: _____

VIDEO WORKSHEET - Part A

Answer the following T/F, and completion questions. If the T/F answer is false, correct it by providing the true information.

1. T   F   Unlike the past, the U.S. currency is no longer based on gold.

2. T   F   The importing of gold into India is illegal.

3. T   F   In Italy, it would not be uncommon to find 10,000 lira notes in use. .

4. South Africa produces _____% of the world's gold.

5. Give the percentage of gold purity in the gold bar. _____%

6. In India most gold is in the form of _____.

7. In South Africa, underground mining accidents take _____ lives a year.

8. How many tons of rock must be blasted out to get 1 ton of gold.

    _____

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

NAME: _____

VIDEO WORKSHEET - Part B

Answer the following questions as completely as possible.

1. List some of the uses of gold mentioned in the video:

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. Explain the reason(s) people want to return to the backing of
   paper money with gold. Name two examples to support these
   reasons.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. Why do French citizens keep gold in their cellars.

   _____

   _____

4. Give two reasons why gold is used in religious ceremonies.

   _____

   _____

5. According to this program, what are the wages, and working condi-
   tions of South African mineworkers.

   _____

   _____

6. What are the differences between white and black workers in
   South African mines?

   _____

   _____

   _____

VIDEO WORKSHEET - Part B (cont'd)

7. What are the reasons Indians keep gold _____

    _____

    _____

8. On her wedding day an Indian bride wears all of the gold she owns
    for two reasons.

    _____

    _____

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

NAME: _____

WRITING:

Write a composition on the topic:

Precious stones and metals and their uses in
different cultures

PART A.

Develop an outline for your composition. Hand the outline in.

ANSWER KEY (cont'd)

VIDEO WORKSHEET - Gold

6. one white worker - every 9 blacks
   white engineers - blacks unskilled
        skilled
   7 x pay of blacks
     strong union

7. Hindu symbol of wealth
   brings prosperity & luck to wearer

8. fertility
   only valuable she can own

DISTRIBUTION OF MARKS

PART A.

1 pt. x 8 =   8

PART B.

2 pts. x 8 =   16

NOTES   6
          ────────
          30   Divide by 10

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

ANSWER KEY - Gold

READING: (Total of 30 - divide by 3)

Part A.   1 mark each - <u>6 marks</u>   (no marks unless both parts of the answer are correct)

1. T   6
2. F   8,9
3. T   19,19
4. F   21,22,23,24
5. T   32,34-36
6. F   40,41

Part B.   2 marks each - <u>20 marks</u>

. Open ended questions based on the text

Part C.   Main Idea   1 pt.   Total - <u>4 marks</u>

1. b
2. b
3. traditions which use gold, gold and culture
4. technological uses of gold, reflectant qualities

<u>Total - 30 marks</u>

Divide by 3

<u>Total - 10 marks</u>

FINAL EXAM

LEVEL IA

ANSWER KEY

Video Worksheet - Gold

A.

1.   T   (based on credit)
2.   T
3.   T
4.   50
5.   99.6%
6.   jewellry
7.   400
8.   100,000

B.

1.   a.   money   d. religion
       b.   adornment
       c.   technology

2.   security   Germany
       stop inflation   Italy

3.   distrust economy
       sense of security

4.   lasts forever
       reused

5.   5$ a day
       bonus 46 a month
       3 days off every 2 weeks
       can go home at set periods
       work 2 miles below earth

APPENDIX D

ENGLISH ABILITY PROFILE

STUDENT *   DATE

COMPONENTS	RANGE	DESCRIPTION
COMMUNICABILITY & ORGANIZATION	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression · ideas clearly stated/ supported · succinct · well-organized · points logically developed · cohesive.
	17-14	GOOD: somewhat choppy · loosely organzed but main ideas stand out · limited support · weak logic
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent ·, ideas confused or disconnected · lacks logical sequencing and development
	9- 7	VERY POOR: does not communiate · no organization · (OR) not enough written to evaluate
CONTENT	30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD. substantive · thorough development of thesis · relevant to assigned topic
	26-22	GOOD: adequate range · limited development of thesis · mostly relevant to topic, but general
	21-17	FAIR TO POOR: little substance · inadequate development of top·
	16-13	VERY POOR: non-substantive · irrelevant · (OR) not enough to evaluate
VOCABULARY	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD· sophisticated range · effective word/idiom choice & usage · shows word form mastery · appropriate register
	17-14	GOOD: adequate range · occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage, but meaning not obscured
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range · frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage · meaning confused or obscured
	9- 7	VERY POOR: essentially translation · little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form · (OR) not enough to evaluate
LANGUAGE USE	25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions few errors of s-v agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21-18	GOOD· minor problems in complex constructions · several errors of s-v agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions, but meaning seldom obscured
	17-11	FAIR TO POOR· major problems in simple/ omplex constructions · frequent fragments, run-ons, deletions & errors of s-v agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	10- 5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules dominated by fragments, run-ons, deletions & errors of s-v agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions · (OR) not enough to evaluate
MECHANICS	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD demonstrates mastery of conventions · few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4	GOOD· occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	3	FAIR TO POOR. frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions · dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing · (OR) not enought to evaluate

TOTAL SCORE   / READER COMMENTS